The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 9, 1901.

The Week.

For some weeks past it has been the most familiar comment on the Stock Exchange that, however extreme might be the rise in prices, the public had not shown evidences of going wild. Brokers with speculative customers reported that, while the volume of buying orders was very great, their clients, in the Wall Street phrase, were "operating" prudently. They were not, in other words, buying stocks, holding them until prices were far advanced, and then using the same stocks, at their enlarged valuation, as a means of borrowing larger and larger sums of money for new speculative ventures. The fact that, until last week, there was no such sudden increase of bank loans as usually attends such a "pyramiding" movement, went some distance towards confirming the brokers' assertion. It has by this time, however, grown very plain that what the Eastern public had as yet failed to do in the way of reckless outside speculation, the West was doing as never before in its history. This fact has been proved in many ways. Even as regards the business done on the New York Stock Exchange, it is now estimated that one-third to one-half of the buying orders come by wire from Chicago and the farther West. When Eastern bank reserves, some weeks ago, showed signs of contracting, Western deposit institutions at once began to ship money to New York. It has been for weeks a noteworthy phenomenon, that Western banks were lending directly on the Wall Street market, and in the main were lending for Stock Exchange uses. The situation amounted practically to this, that the West was plunging into stock speculation at New York, and was drawing on its own institutions to supply the means.

What may be called the physical collapse of the Stock Exchange is perhaps the most novel and extraordinary part of the whole present episode of speculation. We do not, for our own part, recall any incident quite parallel to it in the history of stock-market finance. Perhaps the nearest approach to it, though on a very much smaller scale, was witnessed on the "gold board" of this city in 1869 and 1870. But even on that occasion it was rather the excessive nervous strain which attracted notice than the literal breakdown of facilities for doing the business. The simple fact of the matter is, that the business of the Stock Exchange, both in its clerical office-work and in its personal transactions on the floor, although highly systematized, is very far from being adapted to such a market as has for some weeks been in progress. There are limits to the number of different groups of brokers which a Stock Exchange member can visit between the hours of ten and three, and there are limits to the number of individual transactions which he can attend to in any group. The normal arrangements of the New York Exchange are calculated for a maximum day's business of, say, half a million shares, which, with the exception of one or two separate days, was the actual maximum until 1899. This being so, it is obvious enough that, when membership cannot be increased, when office facilities are not capable of indefinite enlargement, and when, for a period of a month consecutively, daily dealings average two million shares—something must, sooner or later, give way.

Late advices from Beaumont, Texas, say that numbers of people coming from far and near to see the "gushers" and to speculate in oil stocks and oil territory have caused something like a local famine. Prices of food have risen 100 per cent., which implies that the railroads cannot bring in provisions fast enough to supply the demand. Neither houses nor rooms can be rented. The sidewalks cannot accommodate the throngs, who are compelled to become Middle-of-the-Road Populists for the time being. There are now seven gushers in the Beaumont district, with an eighth soon expected. Land is still advancing in value, and the oil area is considered much wider than it was first reckoned to be. An English company, called the Byrd Syndicate, has taken leases on 63,000 acres of land in Hardin County, immediately north of Jefferson, in which Beaumont is situated, and is preparing to sink ten wells there. Almost every town in the State has an oil company. The Beaumont correspondent of the *Manufacturers' Record* says that there are 200 oil companies doing business there, of which probably 25 are bona-fide institutions. The remainder are of the speculative sort. "The intentions of these parties," says the writer, "are good, and in almost every instance the promoters expect firmly to strike oil, but, from a business point of view, it is taking big chances." The Beaumont discovery has given rise to a considerable body of literature on the subject of fuel oils. There seems to be a general concurrence of opinion among men of science that there will be a local demand for all the fuel of this kind that can be found, and that ultimately it may even lead to a large production of steel in Texas.

What effect the purchase of the Leyland steamship line by J. P. Morgan & Co. will have on the Ship Subsidy scheme is a question of some interest. It is not likely that the Subsidy Bill will ever come up again, but if it does, the purchase of the Leyland Line with American capital will be the best evidence that Government aid is not needed to increase the American merchant marine. The advocates of the Hanna-Frye bill based all their arguments on the necessity of a great national effort—a pull all together—to create a shipping interest to fly the American flag on the ocean and in foreign ports. Suddenly, without Government aid, and without vexing the ear of Congress, a whole fleet of ships is transferred to American ownership, a fleet that could not be built in this country in less than five years, even if our shipyards were clear of other work. Under existing conditions they could not be built here in ten years. Senators Hanna and Frye, and all others who have so desiderated American shipping, ought to be thankful for this Aladdin-like fruition of their hopes. But, says some carping critic, this does not put the American flag on the high seas. No; but Congress can do that without paying a cent out of the Treasury. The Subsidy Bill itself contained a provision for putting a large number of foreign-built ships under the American flag and paying them a subsidy to boot. Those of the Atlantic Transport Company were included. If the display of the flag is an important part of the business of navigation, nothing can be obtained at less cost. We are sure that Mr. Morgan will not object to a bill authorizing the placing of all the Leyland steamers under American register.

Shortly after the expulsion of Spain from Cuba, a Commission was appointed by the President of the United States to frame a tariff on imports for the island. This duty was assumed to belong to the military power, and the claim was not disputed. Some system of taxation was necessary, and this was the easiest and most expeditious way of reaching it. For some reason this tariff is now undergoing revision at Washington at the hands of the Commission that first framed it. The various American interests affected by it have naturally flocked to the place where the work is going on, and, as one man connected with the Commission says, "are all howling like a pack of wolves," and yet are not willing to give Cuba anything in return, not even an opiate to deaden her sufferings." It is a new thing in our economic history, this spectacle of American producers besieging a quasi-Committee of Ways and

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Means in order to get duties levied on a foreign country in their interest. To exploit the American taxpayer in the framing of tariffs is a familiar principle, but to exploit foreigners is a novelty indeed. The rice-planters of Louisiana, it is said, desire to have a very low Cuban duty on rice, because in that way they will be able to increase their sales—a proposition which may be equally advantageous to the Cubans as giving them cheap food, but which ought to be considered and decided with reference to Cuban interests exclusively. The demands of our tobacco-manufacturers and our cotton-spinners are also heard in the dispute; and why are they not entitled to the same consideration as those of the rice-planters or of any other class? Give a little more time and advertising to the fact that we are framing a tariff for Cuba at Washington, and we shall have delegations from all parts of the country to assist the Commission in its work. The spectacle is most unseemly, and must be a fresh source of humiliation to the Cubans, who have fancied that they were about to assume the duties of self-government.

Good work has been done by the committee appointed by the National Civil-Service Reform League to investigate the present condition of the Federal civil service. Its first report relates to the appointment of Indian agents under the present Administration. There have been wholesale changes of Indian agents by all recent Presidents—in all but two of the sixty agencies during Cleveland's first term; seventy-six appointments during Harrison's term; eighty-one changes in Cleveland's second Administration; and seventy-nine in the fifty-eight agencies during McKinley's first term. Many flagrantly bad appointments have been made during the past four years, but some of the worst men selected have been removed. The committee, however, points out that no lasting reform can be achieved without a change in the system. This can be secured through the action of the President any day, without waiting for legislation by Congress. The President is authorized to prescribe such regulations for the admission of persons into the civil service as may best promote its efficiency, and under this law the committee has formally asked him to promulgate regulations declaring that all appointments of Indian agents shall be made by promotion from the superintendents of Indian schools and from the other higher grades of the classified Indian service, and by details from the army.

The Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo was opened on May 1 with less blare of trumpets than is usual at a great fair, but this should not create a false impression as to its importance. Architecturally, the buildings are no less interesting than those of the Chicago and Paris Expositions. The ensemble has been more successfully worked out than was that of the Paris Exposition, while, wisely renouncing the attempt to rival the "white city," the city of palaces at Buffalo will glow with color, like an Eastern town. For the first time a number of great buildings have been colored according to a prearranged and harmonious scheme, and the result may be to restore to architecture the interest it has lost in renouncing color. It would be strange if Ruskin's dream of a revival of the glories of Venetian building should first be realized by way of the Great Lakes. But the Pan-American has a serious claim upon those to whom æsthetic considerations appeal but slightly. It stands for an ideal that has been much obscured, and it affords an opportunity that has not in equal measure been given. North American ignorance of South America has been most deplorable. We have let an enormous trade which might have been ours for the reaching out, go to England and Germany. We have ignored completely a type of civilization which might have yielded us both pleasure and instruction. We were the stronger, and the initiative should have come from us. To-day our repentance assumes the form of architectural beauty at Buffalo. An apology in such form can only be taken in good part, and, unquestionably, the Exposition will tend to bring about a better understanding between the Americas, and to supply through better acquaintance a basis for mutual helpfulness and mutual respect.

It seems to be settled now that the Colombian Government has required the Panama Canal Company to make a definite proposition for the sale of its property to the United States. As the concession for the canal will expire before the work can possibly be completed, the Government has power to prescribe the terms for its renewal, and one of these is that the canal shall be offered to the United States on fair terms and in a way to meet all the objections raised by our Isthmian Canal Commission. The proposition for sale provides for an appraisal by arbitrators, whose decision as to price shall be final. This means final so far as the Canal Company is concerned, but not as to the United States. The latter is not bargaining for a canal at present. No officer of our Government can do anything except report to Congress the proposition which may be made to us by the Panama Company and the Colombian Government in unison. The report published on Monday that Secretary Hay and Lord Pauncefote have agreed upon the terms of a new canal treaty, in place of the one which fell dead two months ago, is probably premature, but such a treaty may be expected before long, the principal feature of which will be a neutrality clause not subject to doubt or double construction, and in which all the maritime Powers may unite at their own option.

With a fine "brute majority" to apply to the export tax on coal, the English Government was able to carry it in the House of Commons on Monday night. There was considerable cross-voting—a few Liberals, like Mr. John Morley, going on record for the new tax—yet the net result was a paring down of the normal Conservative majority by something more than forty. But this is by no means an accurate measure of the ill-feeling and almost open rebellion excited in the party by the Chancellor's masterful ways and by his unpopular taxes. Of course, when a question is made one of "confidence," as the coal tax was, party members have to walk up to the scratch and vote for it, despite all their grumbling. But every such forced expression of confidence really weakens the Cabinet which has to call for it. Instead of willing and enthusiastic, it gets muttering and reluctant followers, and no Government can long exist with such backing. As for the coal tax itself, the soundest and strongest argument that we have seen against it was made by the eminent economist, Prof. Alfred Marshall. His opposition was based on large grounds of national policy. Economically defensible and not at all a departure from the general principle of free trade, he yet thought the tax a vexatious novelty in international commerce, and that this was a thing highly perilous for England to introduce. Suppose other countries began to lay export taxes on the raw materials that English manufactures must have or expire? It was a dangerous precedent that the Chancellor was setting, and might be a fatal suggestion to others. Great Britain's life-blood being international trade, he is an unskilful physician who does anything even remotely to impede its circulation. This wise counsel of Professor Marshall's should be taken to heart by us Americans, who now, with so much reason, are counting upon wresting from England the primacy in trade. Against export duties, fortunately, we are protected by the Constitution.

One of the coldest of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's dashes of cold water in his budget speech was his announcement that he did not expect to get any money out of the Transvaal to help pay for the war until after two or three years. This is a terrible come-down from the jaunty expectations of the early days of the war. Even in March, 1900, the Chancellor had to withstand

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strong opposition to his new war taxes. "Just borrow the money," was the cry of the Chamberlainites; "we will get it all back out of the Transvaal some day." But Sir Michael is too sound a financier to imitate Pitt's fatal policy of borrowing everything for war expenditure, and last year, as this, he refused to be responsible for any such plan. In December of last year he informed Parliament that he had sent out a financial expert, Sir David Barbour, to report upon the prospect of contributions to the Exchequer from the Transvaal. The unexpected prolongation of the war has prevented a full report, but the Chancellor received some "preliminary observations" from Sir David, in time for his budget speech of last month, and these were of the most discouraging character, indicating that the Transvaal was practically ruined, and that a considerable period must elapse after the restoration of peace before any Imperial taxation of the country would be possible. Thus melts into empty air another vision of credulous Imperialism.

The Agrarians have thus far successfully blocked the Canal Bill in the Prussian Diet, and no means has been found to shake their stolid opposition to the Emperor's favorite project. Of course, the Ministry may retaliate by refusing to pass the new protective duties on foodstuffs. To do otherwise would be a virtual confession of defeat, for the passage of the Prussian Canal Bill was made the condition of the new Imperial tariff schedule. They must swallow the Canal Bill dose before they get their protection dram, the Emperor had said in substance. "Who swallows?" the Socialist *Vorwaerts* inquires. Duties on foodstuffs would prove a costly means of favoring the Agrarians at the expense of the country at large. The situation is an awkward one on all hands. It is apparently impossible to content the Prussian squirearchy, and yet the solid Agrarian vote is necessary to the Government. Every concession to the Agrarians, on the other hand, is likely to breed dissatisfaction among the manufacturing and banking classes, upon the support of both which the Government is dependent, while it is sure to strengthen the already formidable opposition of the Socialists. The resignation of the Prussian Finance Minister is significant of what may happen in the Imperial Cabinet. Chancellor von Bülow will give a good account of his enemies; to manage his friends is the difficulty.

A physicians' strike in Germany is the latest thing in industrial warfare. The trouble arose in connection with the system of sickness insurance, by which some thirty million Germans, on payment of a small sum, are entitled to free medical attendance. Theoretically, nothing could be more perfect than such a coöperative arrangement. Practically it has been found that the interests of the sickness bureaus (*Krankenkassen*), the doctors, and the patients clash at almost every point. The bureaus work to promote economy, and desire that few cases of sickness be reported. The people feel that the doctors treat them unfeelingly. The doctors, on their part, find the bureaus hard taskmasters. In Leipsic the conflict has declared itself frankly. The bureau physicians, as in other cities, had organized an association to represent the profession. This commission attempted to negotiate with the bureaus for better terms and less irksome conditions of service. The bureaus refused to deal with the commission, but were willing to hear individual complaints. It was the old question of "recognizing the union." The doctors did just what workingmen do under the circumstances—struck, and the work of the Leipsic bureaus is crippled.

At Munich the case of the doctors was still harder. Their average profits from the bureau service were about $75 yearly. The pay was the same for the most difficult and for the lightest cases. The united effort of the physicians raised the average pay for a call to about fifteen cents. They demanded as well a special tariff for obstetrics and other difficult operations, and, when such recognition was refused, like their Leipsic brethren, they struck in a body. The case would hardly call for comment were it not that patients are equally disaffected. The system oppresses them. They must take such physician as is allotted to them, must buy their medicines at certain pharmacies or lose the benefit of their subscription. They receive underpaid treatment grudgingly given, which is the worst treatment. They possibly lose more in equanimity than they gain in economy. While it is possible that some reform of the system may be secured, it looks very much as though its defects were radical. Organization fails when it clashes with human nature, and it is hard to see how any bureau system is consistent with the human relation that should exist between physician and patient.

The Chinese of one or two provinces are starving. At the present rate of progress, the settlement with China will be effected about 1950. Meanwhile, throughout the intervening years, the various Powers and rulers concerned will compete with each other in expressing a desire that the business be ended speedily, and a devout hope that the *others* will be moderate. The indemnity will all the while grow, like a beard in the shaving. More and more Chinese territory will be politely "leased," and if the native Government protests against being slowly bled to death, it will be asked not to disturb the wise counsels of the slumbering diplomats. We understand perfectly the immense difficulties under which the negotiations at Pekin must of necessity be carried on; but if the purposes of the Powers were clear, simple, and transparently honest, an agreement could surely have been reached before this. The interminable delays, the *pour-parlers* without end, the tentative projects, the notes written and signed and then torn up, the indemnity moved up and down like a speculative stock in Wall Street—all this looks like a deliberate intention not to agree. To the Chinese it must seem like calculated and slow torture.

The Ministerial crisis in Japan was foreshadowed some weeks ago when the House of Lords held up the Revenue Bills necessitated by the Chinese expedition. This action of the Peers was not due to the nature of the bills themselves. The project to raise about $10,000,000 by taxes on liquors, tobacco, sugar, and beer was in every way a moderate one. The refusal to vote supplies was simply an emphatic expression of ill will towards members of the Commons, who are gradually usurping a prestige which once belonged to the Lords. It should be remembered that the Japanese House of Lords is measurably free from the defects of a hereditary body. Only Princes and Marquises (about one-seventh of the total number of Peers) sit by hereditary right, the other noble members are elected by their respective orders, while numerous Peers are appointed directly by the Emperor, and forty-five are elected by the largest taxpayers. Thus the House of Lords has a fairly representative character, and certainly embodies much greater ability than the House of Commons. Contrariwise, the promotion so readily accorded to prominent officials has disqualified many of the best statesmen from sitting in the Commons. Meanwhile, under Marquis Ito's régime, the power of the Commons has increased. Parties have begun to form and multiply, the claims of which he has been obliged to consider. With this tendency towards party government have come the usual evils of such government. It is partly, then, as a protest against corruption, and even more as the assertion of a moral prerogative, that the action of the Japanese Lords must be taken. It appears to be a futile protest against the inevitable, and their willingness to tie the hands of the Ministry in an emergency like that of the Chinese war bears no creditable interpretation. The Ministry, on the other hand, has justly refused to evade the issue, and has regarded the persistent cutting off of its supplies as cause for resigning.

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McKINLEY'S NEW DEPARTURE.

At the very moment when Senator Hoar, at the Boston dinner of the Home Market Club, was falling down in the old fashion before the idol of Protection, President McKinley at Memphis was doing despite to that heathen divinity almost as if he were a convert to the true faith. Many have wondered what might be the main purpose of the President in travelling about the country at this time. The minor motives he has are obvious. A skilled *populachero*, as unlucky De Lome declared him to be, he delights to mingle with his fellow-citizens, and to give back in showers that flattery which he receives from his audiences as mist—to apply to him Gladstone's definition of oratory. When plain *citoyen* Loubet develops the arts and graces of a royal progress in his journeys through France, we need not be surprised if Mr. McKinley displays similar talent. But that he has a serious aim beneath all the flowers, we are bound to believe; and what it is, we think the evidence already shows. He is bent, it seems to us, on preparing the people, and especially his own party, for a great change in the commercial and fiscal policy of the United States.

He gave distinct warning of this new departure of his in his inaugural address last March. He broke off his pæan over our prosperity to say, in words which did not at the time attract the attention they deserve, "Our diversified productions, however, are increasing in such unprecedented volume as to admonish us of the necessity of still further enlarging our foreign markets by broader commercial relations." What he meant, and proceeded specifically to refer to, was "reciprocal trade arrangements." A whole series of these the Senate had just refused to ratify. The chief objectors were Republican Senators—Aldrich, Lodge, Platt, Depew. They rested their opposition on solid and selfish protectionist grounds. Keep out foreign goods as you would the plague; the foreign market be hanged. But the President reasserted his programme. The reciprocity treaties have been extended, and will again come before the Senate, and Mr. McKinley is off on a campaign of education to secure their acceptance this time. Not maxims but markets, he said at Memphis, which, being interpreted to fit present circumstances, obviously means, "Don't stick to your outworn protectionist creed if it prevents you from selling your goods." The world-market, with not a word about the home-market, "the great markets of the Orient"—how to secure these was the burden of his story, and the problems involved we were to solve "untrammelled by the past." To show how completely he had broken with his own past, he proceeded to read with approval resolutions adopted by the Legislature of Tennessee in 1847. They were practically free-trade resolutions, dwelling upon the importance of enlarged commercial intercourse with the rest of the world. Thus we have the author of the McKinley tariff, who used to rail at the "delusory" foreign market, going back to the days of the Walker tariff to find true guidance for the present.

He recurred to the subject on May 1:

> "It is your business," he said, "as well as mine to see to it that an industrial policy shall be pursued in the United States that shall open up the widest markets in every part of the world for the products of American soil and American manufacture. We can now supply our own markets. We have reached that point in our industrial development, and in order to secure sale for our surplus products we must open up new avenues for our surplus. I am sure that in that sentiment there will be no division, North or South."

Nothing in Mr. Kasson's correspondence with the Home-Market Committee was more heretical than this, and it is all the more poisonous that it is embodied in generalities and is thus liable to be swallowed by innocents like the New York *Tribune*. This sheet quotes and commends the foregoing extract, and gives especial point to it by saying that we are to look for expansion of American trade abroad, not merely in the Orient, where our cottons are in demand, but in Europe, where our growing general manufactures may find a market. Evidently this is a sly reference to the treaty of reciprocity with France, which the Boston protectionists opposed with such lively expressions of indignation in a letter to the President, and which Mr. Kasson so ably defended.

Such a sea change is wonderful in our eyes, and we are not going to waste time in disputing or in glorying over it. The President is right now, whatever he may have been in the past. The very fact that he is an opportunist by nature is the strongest proof that he is but responding to powerful and unmistakable tendencies in the business world, when he declares that the building up of our foreign trade in manufactured goods is the strategic duty of the hour. The thing is so plain that it has convinced Mr. McKinley, and has swung him from his ancient high-tariff moorings. He has lived to be ready, at the risk of the odium of inconsistency, to speak and work for a policy which he had denounced. Sir Robert Peel did it, and so may William McKinley; and those who, all these years, have labored for the peaceful expansion of trade with all the world will not quarrel with the result, even if it come about in ways of which they did not dream.

What we are seeing is simply the fulfilment, somewhat earlier than most people expected, of the old prophecies of convinced economists. Mr. Gladstone, for example, long ago predicted the industrial supremacy of the United States. What he saw was a vast continent of inexhaustible and varied resources, inhabited by a homogeneous, an educated, an inventive people. That they would come to the front in an industrial age was certain, sooner or later. The one thing they needed to go with their unlimited natural resources was unlimited capital, and this they have now got. That they are rapidly becoming the manufacturing monarchs of the world is but the necessary consequence.

President McKinley merely interprets the sense of the business world when he urges such "broader commercial relations" as will make the path of this great and peaceful conquest by American industry easier and more secure. Everything is going forward now by leaps and bounds, but the pinch of competition is yet to come. It is for us to fortify ourselves in advance for an era of world-wide industrial depression. Everybody knows what the sure bulwark of manufacturing is in such a crisis. It is free raw materials and the open door. A Russian Consul, speaking the other day in England, said with much force that the "staying power" of English manufactures had been in the free-trade policy. From this no trained Chancellor of the Exchequer will depart. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach resisted all the pressure to tax raw materials, on the ground that it would be a step towards national suicide. To this must we come—to it Mr. McKinley is obviously willing to come—if we are to strengthen and safeguard the wonderful expansion of American commerce, especially in finished products. Great changes are in the air. By the time Congress meets, the situation may have so developed, and the appeals of the American manufacturer may easily have become so urgent, that we may see the President's plan for adopting reciprocity under the guise of "extending" the protective system carried into execution.

AMERICAN LEADERSHIP IN CHINA.

Gen. Chaffee, with all his troops, guns, and transport, is leaving Pekin and will soon leave China. The fact rounds out an episode in American diplomacy in the highest degree honorable to the country. Whatever the future of the Chinese problem may be, our contribution to its solving during the past nine months has been of a sort to quicken the pride of the patriot at the same time that it cheers the heart of the philanthropist. The work has not been done by a man sounding a trumpet before him. Indeed, not being accompanied by the thunder of the captains and the shouting, it has not attracted as much attention and won as much praise in the United States as we think it deserves. But we know that it has profoundly impressed the leaders of thought and of public life in Europe. They have seen in it a transcendent

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exhibition of American leadership in the world of ideas and the world of action. The vaunted Spanish war as an eye-opener was nothing compared with the part played by America in the intervention in China. We have shown ourselves, to those having eyes to see, to be guided by a diplomacy unsurpassed in its grasp of the situation, in its clear and consistent policy, in its patient moderation, its firmness, its moral impulse.

In Mr. William Vaughn Moody's finely imagined poem, "The Quarry," he gives a poet's rendering of the service performed by America in China. Under the image of a sacred elephant, decrepit with age, he pictures China fleeing from pursuers. Good need was there to haste, for

"—— panting, foaming, on the slot
Came many brutes of prey, their several hates
Laid by until the sharing of the spoil,
Just as they gathered stomach for the leap,
The sun was darkened, and wide-balanced wings
Beat downward on the trade-wind from the sea.
A wheel of shadow sped along the fields
And o'er the dreaming cities. Suddenly
My heart misgave me, and I cried aloud,
'Alas! What dost thou here? What dost *thou* here?'
The great beasts and the little halted sharp,
Eyed the grand circler, doubting his intent.
Straightway the wind flawed and he came about,
Stooping to take the vanward of the pack;
Then turned, between the chasers and the chased,
Crying a word I could not understand—
But stiller-tongued, with eyes somewhat askance,
They settled to the slot and disappeared."

There may be about this just the touch of exaggeration necessary to give it the due effect of truth, but no one can deny that, at many critical times and in many critical ways, the American eagle has taken "the vanward" in China. In those haggard days last July and August, it was the American Secretary of State who maintained his faith, in the face of the jeering chancelleries of Europe, that the legations in Pekin were holding out. It has since become easy for the Powers to trust the educated Chinese Ambassadors, to lean upon the great Chinese Viceroys. Mr. Hay did it then. A very simple thing, but it occurred to no one else to do it. Genius might be defined as a knack at doing the easy and natural things which other people immediately curse themselves for not having thought of doing. Genius for statecraft, at any rate, lay that way in the Chinese difficulty, and it will be to the lasting honor of American diplomacy that it was an American diplomat who displayed it.

It is not for us to insist with Pharisaical complacency upon an absolute primacy in the restraint shown by our forces in China. War being what it is, we must not be surprised that the brute got uppermost in some of our soldiers, and that they took their shameful part in the shameful work of needless slaughter and burning and robbery. But this we may say, with honest pride, that in our detachment the skulking and attendant horrors of the march from Tientsin to Pekin were reduced to the minimum; that no other force had a better attested reputation for good discipline; and that the administration of the quarter of the capital city under American control won praise from the most impartial observers and gratitude from the natives themselves. Gen. Chaffee's letter of protest to the Commander-in-Chief against recurring outrages was undiplomatic, was in strictness unsoldierly, and was properly recalled and apologized for; but it was an instinctive utterance of the best American feeling, for which the man must always be thanked and congratulated, even if the General had to be disavowed.

The deliberate withdrawal of our troops marks the determination with which our Government has clung to its first clear conception of our duty in China. Other countries have vacillated, and do not yet know their own minds. Our policy was plainly stated at the beginning, and has not been departed from all through. We sent a military force primarily to rescue imperilled American citizens. Our subsequent stay was only to negotiate an honorable and lasting peace. In all the drawn-out conferences the position of America has never been in doubt. We have been for the integrity of the Chinese Empire—China for the Chinese. We have opposed laying a crushing burden of indemnity upon an impoverished, a starving people. The only American right in China for which we have been insistent is the right to trade there on equal terms. We do not need to seek an unfair advantage. An open door and no favor infallibly means for the United States, as so clear-sighted an economist as Paul Leroy-Beaulieu has admitted, the greater share and gain in the commercial exploitation of China.

American leadership in China may thus fairly be asserted in an early and sure sense of the facts in hand, in moderation and humanity in both military operations and the efforts for a settlement, and in a wise and far-seeing policy, vividly conceived at the start and made the norm of action to the end. The whole makes up a record which the future historian may well single out as the proudest in either of Mr. McKinley's Administrations. To Mr. Hay, who planned and executed, as also to the President who approved, and who has generously given the Secretary the credit which is his due, it should be a source of enduring satisfaction to look back upon the troubled and trying year of American intervention in China.

INTEREST IN PARLIAMENTARY ORATORY.

The exciting debate in the House of Commons on Thursday night came right on the heels of a widespread lament in England over the decay of Parliamentary oratory. Mr. Alfred Kinnear had a doleful article in the last *New Liberal Review*, mourning the evil days on which the House of Commons had fallen. There were no more great speakers. A "great debate" had come to mean only a great bore. The country had lost interest in the House, and was rapidly losing respect for it. Lord Hugh Cecil bluntly told the Commons, the other day, with a rash cynicism worthy of his father, that it never stood lower in public opinion. The London *Economist* grieved recently over the "shunting" of the House of Commons. These were the prevailing complaints—when lo! suddenly there was a crowded House, a nation hanging breathless upon the speeches, strong men grappling in eager argument, the old traditions apparently in full vigor again. What was the cause?

Partly, the subject of debate. It was one which appealed to powerful interests and which roused strong passions. A shilling tax on exported coal might seem poorly fitted to excite noble rage, but it really goes to the centre of English industry, English finance, and English party politics. A tax on coal means the modification, for good or ill, of the conditions affecting British manufactures, railways, shipping. It is a revolutionary step in taxation. Above all, it is, or threatens to be, a solvent of parties. This is the main thing which turns all eyes upon the scenes at Westminster, and which makes the debate run high with excitement. The speeches may change votes, may upset the Government, or at least compel a reorganization of the Cabinet. In other words, when the old prizes of Parliamentary oratory are again in sight of the orators, the old ardor returns, the old kindling enthusiasm leaps along the benches, and eloquence responds to hope.

Neither the Chancellor of the Exchequer nor Sir William Harcourt, the protagonists of the debate, is what can be called a great orator. Sir William is, however, a tremendously effective speaker—not a Rupert, but a Nasmyth hammer, of debate. His vigorous directness, his sweep and rush of utterance, his impatience of contradiction, make him an adept in the "art of abating and dissolving pompous gentlemen." But he overbears rather than persuades, breaks through obstacles instead of flanking them, and is almost wholly without that *magna eloquentia* which is as a flame nourished on its own substance, and which *clarescit urendo*. Representing, as he does, a Welsh constituency, he naturally comes forward as the champion of a peculiarly Welsh industry, and delivers his hardest blows at the coal tax. In defending it, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach shows himself the very type of the hard-headed, clear-headed, and unemo-

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tional speaker. One could imagine him saying to his fervid opponents, as Bismarck said to Jules Favre, that he was there for business, and that all the arts of public declamation would be utterly wasted upon him. He knows what he wants, has himself and his case perfectly in hand, and, without resorting to a single trick of oratory (if we except a turn for cutting sarcasm), makes his argument with the cold and impersonal air of a lecturer giving a demonstration in physics. The figures are so and so; the tax will yield this revenue and have that effect; you may take it or leave it. Turn me out of office if I do not yield? You could not please me better. Anyhow, I will not yield.

Probably not since Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill and speeches of 1886 has there been such a quiver of political expectancy attending a debate in the House of Commons as is felt in connection with the discussion of this year's budget. The Government has shown many signs of going stale. Its majority on paper is 150, but on important division after division it has fallen to fifty or lower. Lord Salisbury's age and health are such that he cannot long retain the Premiership. Readjustment will certainly come soon, and perhaps a great overturning. Our lively friend Timothy Healy expressed the general sense of the situation when he said the other day: "The Government were extremely anxious to get out of office, but every time they tried to get into a minority, the front Opposition bench voted for them. The explanation was that the leader of the Opposition did not want to go into office at the present juncture of affairs. But he did not think any one was more tired of the present Government than the First Lord of the Treasury himself. The Government were now only a few weeks in office, and they were more limp and more jaded than any Government he had ever known." In the revival, at this juncture, of interest in Parliamentary oratory, we are put clearly on the track of the reason for its decay. True forensic eloquence is the art of persuasion; but how can men rise to eloquence if they know in their hearts that their hearers are immovably committed against them in advance? It is the perfunctory and listless nature of voting in Congress or Commons that makes speaking listless and perfunctory. With the result of the roll-call certain beforehand, the orator knows that he is simply marking time. At his best he can get only the compliment, given in one case by a frank opponent, "You have changed my convictions, but you have not changed my vote." Rigid party control and the reign of the caucus have clipped the wings of public oratory. How eagerly audience and speaker alike grasp at the opportunity of freedom both to utter independent thought and to yield to the weight of argument, we see in the rapt attention which waited upon the speeches of Messrs. Littlefield and McCall in the House of Representatives last year. There were men speaking not the conventional thing, not the cut-and-dried party thing, but their own honest conviction. And they actually hoped to persuade others! That is the breath of life of Parliamentary oratory, and if we would restore it, we must restore the conditions in which alone it can exist.

PRODUCTIVE SCHOLARSHIP IN AMERICA.

"America now has scholarship, as well as Germany, but it is just as when the Germans claim that they, as well as the Americans, play football; to be sure, they do play it, but in cutaways and in high collars." So writes Professor Münsterberg of Harvard in a suggestive article in the current issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*. Productive scholarship—that is, the disinterested effort to extend the boundaries of the known and understood—has in America, he feels, neither achieved results that can satisfy the scholar, nor gained due standing and influence in our public life. This evil case of scholarship he attributes chiefly to two causes: inadequate methods of instruction in the universities, and the lack of sufficient moral and material reward for scholarship to attract to its austere heights our best and most ambitious minds. There is thus a twofold difficulty—insufficient training for scholars, and insufficient recognition of such training as they yet manage to secure.

American graduate students are badly trained, in the Professor's opinion, because their work in the university is merely the continuation of their studies in the college. University professors are chosen as skilful teachers, shrewd administrators, popular lecturers, graceful littérateurs, good fellows of scholarly bent—on any basis you will, save that of productive scholarship. "The university is a more difficult college—a college which presupposes a greater amount of information, and where the best informed teachers of the country are teaching; but its spirit is exactly the college spirit, merely on a more elaborate scale of instruction." It would be easy to remind Professor Münsterberg of that Academician who, to the complaint that the Royal Academy wasn't up to the mark "this year," answered cheerfully—"But then it never was." The friendly criticism of an eminent German scholar who has chosen to cast in his lot with us deserves, however, a less summary consideration. It is certainly true that many even of our better universities still carry the college shell on their heads. This is but natural; colleges were their brooding mothers. The university has been often superadded to the college without any proper addition to the teaching staff. College professors simply added university teaching to duties already sufficiently onerous, and the universities naturally retain much of the collegiate character.

So far we are in complete accord with Professor Münsterberg. What he has failed to see is that this was an inevitable stage, and is quickly passing. We shall not always see the learned in Greek dialects reviewing freshmen on the -μι verbs; and if the census were to be made of great specialists who have been gradually emancipated from college teaching and promoted to their proper work of university instruction, the results would be most encouraging. Furthermore, the whole tendency of today is towards the growth of a special class of university teachers. The larger universities carry on their faculties scores of recent graduates who serve, at little pay, for the opportunity of original research, looking forward to a university career.

Whether scholars are sufficiently paid is an often debated question, to the discussion of which Professor Münsterberg brings a new point of view. He feels, in brief, that salary should be in some ratio to productive scholarship, and that the mark should be set high. If you give an Ambassador, say, twenty thousand dollars, you should do as much for a scientist of world-wide reputation. The fixed scale, by which a ready man of no especial scholarship, but facile with his pen and popular with the women's clubs (things profitable all, but not conducive to production), receives precisely the same salary as his colleague who patiently toils at an unremunerative work of pure scholarship—this fixed scale is an absurdity, which no other profession tolerates. Americans everywhere respect social and pecuniary success. Make these possible to the professor, and he will have honor in his own country. Give the scholar's position the *éclat* that attaches to the other walks of life, and your best ability will go in for scholarship. Such is the somewhat circular course of Professor Münsterberg's argument. Or in other words, if a nation of gigmen will not respect the scholar on foot, give the scholar a coach and four, and the gigman will yield him the crown of the causeway. Would not a plain man not a psychologist be likely to mistake this for "the philosophy of the sty"?

Few true scholars really seek or value the ambassadorial prestige which professors are reputed to enjoy in Germany. The late Bishop Stubbs's sore grievance against Oxford was its dinner parties, late hours, smoking, Sunday breakfasts, and university sermons—the pomps and vanities, in short, as they are practised at Oxford. Another great Oxonian, the late Max Müller, fairly out-

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lived his usefulness as a scholar through his desire for public applause and ribbons "to stick in his coat." The contrast is instructive. What the true scholar most desires, besides the modest competence which is the condition of all mental tranquillity, is not social success, not even public recognition—he cares little enough for the gigman's view of him—but time and facilities for research. These, and not great salaries, are the desideratum. Great energies which should be restored to scholarship to-day are wasted in mere administration. The amount of teaching required of university professors is frequently excessive, and should be reduced. Chairs and departments of research, like the Harvard Observatory, should be established. The other matter, of a living wage for professors, on a fixed or sliding scale, will take care of itself.

It remains true that scholarship is neither sufficiently understood nor respected in America, and Professor Münsterberg does well to remind us not to assume the air of such as have already attained. Productive scholarship still shares the lot of new causes. Great scholars there were in America before the universities, but organized research is a thing of yesterday with us. If Professor Münsterberg had been here twenty years ago, when Johns Hopkins was still a voice crying in the wilderness, or still later, when the Harvard or the Yale Graduate School was still only *in posse*, he might find greater reason for hope, and less for apprehension.

"Had you once seen these roads before they were made,
You would lift up your hands and bless General Wade,"

was in Scott's time the standing apology for the bad military roads in the Highlands. A similar comment might fit Professor Münsterberg's amiable counsel of perfection.

BERNADOTTE.

PARIS, April 22, 1901.

Bernadotte may well be considered one of the most extraordinary figures among those destined to hold a place in the great drama of the Revolution and the Empire. He was looked on at one time as a possible rival of Bonaparte, and was jealous of him from the beginning. He was a shrewd man of the South, and never quarrelled openly with Bonaparte; in the crisis of the 18th Brumaire he did not openly assist him, but he contrived not to turn him into an irreconcilable enemy. His rôle during the Empire is well known and belongs to history. We have less knowledge of him after the downfall of the Empire; and M. Léonce Pingaud has done well to describe to us recently the last years of Bernadotte.

The Bourbons never looked favorably on him, viewing him as an upstart, as a creature of the Revolution. They did not forget that in 1814 Bernadotte had thought for a moment of succeeding Napoleon, and of asking no smaller price for the services which he had rendered to the Coalition than the crown of France. Louis XVIII., who invoked for himself the principle of legitimacy, invoked it also for the Vasas in Stockholm. Talleyrand, who used so cleverly at Vienna the principle of legitimacy in order to secure for France her former frontiers, gave instructions to his agents in favor of the Vasas, but soon met with great resistance in many quarters. Bernadotte, who was not yet King, merely Prince of Sweden, was aware of the hostility of Louis XVIII. and was unsparing in his attacks on the house of Bourbon. He said to those who formed his habitual circle, "The house of Bourbon is rotten."

When Napoleon left the island of Elba, and landed in France, Bernadotte became much excited.

"He first," says M. Pingaud, "prophesied failure for Napoleon and consequent great good fortune for France. Twenty days elapse; the Emperor has reached the Tuileries; Murat, as if to set his rival of the North the example of repentance, has declared war on Austria. Bernadotte suddenly remembers that his engagements with the Coalition have expired. But Murat is overthrown in a few days, and Bernadotte, fearing to be once more isolated in Europe, offers to take his place among the Allies. A week afterwards, he learns that Benjamin Constant has been called to the Tuileries, that Lafayette sits in the House of Representatives, that Carnot occupies the Home Office. He exchanges views on the future of France with Madame de Staël."

The Prince in his court proclaims Napoleon the first captain in the world, the greatest man that ever lived, greater than Hannibal, than Cæsar, than Moses! This enthusiasm is cooled by the news of Waterloo. Bernadotte is so afraid of the return of the Bourbons that he affects to believe seriously in Napoleon II.; he congratulates the Austrian Minister on the subject; he would rather see the Republic proclaimed in France than to see the return of Louis XVIII.

During the negotiations which precede the signing of the treaties of 1815, he sulks, he is discontented. He does not conceal his anger; he deplores the subjection of France to the *émigrés*.

"I have been a Republican," he says on the 30th of June, 1816, "or, at least, I have served the Republic—an inexcusable crime in the eyes of the Bourbons. I do not think that they are generous enough to forget that I arose from an ordinary class in society, and the Revolution brought me where I am. I can say, however, that they are under great obligations to me, for without me Napoleon would not have found the Coalition confronting him; I was its central nucleus."

Modesty has never been a virtue of the Gascons, and Bernadotte's career was not such as to cultivate it. He was proclaimed King of Sweden in February, 1818. The Court of the Tuileries was obliged to congratulate him; he did not imitate the ordinary parvenu, but remained true to his instincts. He extended his protection to the sons of Ney, who had been his comrade in the army of Sambre-et-Meuse, gave brevets in his army to them, to the son of Drouet d'Erlon, even to a son of Fouché. The young Prince de la Moskowa became an aide-de-camp to Bernadotte's son. Count Athanat d'Otrante, Fouché's son, became a Swedish chamberlain.

Metternich denounced Charles XIV. for giving encouragement to all the enemies of his policy.

"Is it not strange," wrote he on the 23d of December, 1821, to the Austrian Ambassador in Russia, "to see encouragement to all the discontented in Europe emanating from a throne, to have them thus confirmed in the continuation of a work of emancipation which, according to the King, goes on too slowly? It is stranger still to see a King designate the royalists for the hatred of the Liberals. . . . There is much food for reflection in such an upturning of ideas."

Bernadotte often spoke of Napoleon. He was fond of saying: "If he only had listened to me, how many mistakes he would have avoided." When he learned the news of Napoleon's death, he said in his council: "He has not been vanquished by men; . . . he was greater than all of us. But God has punished him, because he relied solely upon himself, upon his own intellect; and as everything wears out, he forced this prodigious intellect and wore it out." He said, with his usual modesty: "If Napoleon has been the first man of the century by reason of his military conceptions, I have surpassed him by my spirit of order, of observation, and of calculation."

When Charles X. ascended the throne, he gave instruction to the French Minister at Stockholm, in view of the eventuality of a revolution which would reëstablish the old dynasty. But the French Minister frankly declared that nobody in Sweden was thinking any longer of Gustavus IV. and his son. Bernadotte continued to take a great interest in all French affairs, and espoused the side of the Liberals against the court party. "With him, however," says M. Pingaud, "as with the Emperor Alexander, the love of liberty reduced itself to the ardent desire to see everybody obey him freely, but blindly." He never forgot that he was a King, and that he was a Frenchman. He said in 1828: "If the throne of the Bourbons were threatened, I would leave the crown to my son, and, taking my sword with me, would go to the defence of the King of France." It may be said that from 1815 to 1830 Bernadotte kept himself, so to speak, between the monarchy of divine right and the Constitutional monarchy.

The Revolution of 1830 was not a surprise to him, but placed him in the most difficult position. His sympathies, his instincts, were on the side of the Revolution; but he was aware that the new Revolution was not viewed with complacency by the Emperor of Russia, his ally, and that he was in a subordinate position with respect to the powerful empire of the North. His ambition was so persistent, his illusions were so great, that he was somewhat surprised that the French did not think of him after the July days. He was not yet resigned to ending his life on the throne "of the Goths and the Vandals." M. Pingaud compares him justly to King Stanislas of Poland, who thought himself in exile in Lorraine, and who hoped to the end that some fortunate accident, some European complication, would bring him back to Warsaw.

Bernadotte, in his official dealings, had to conform his attitude to that of the Emperor of Russia, and Nicholas was distinctly hostile to Louis-Philippe. The new King of France sent him an autograph letter, which was brought by the Prince de la Moskowa. Bernadotte did not receive him until he had learned that the French generals Belliard and Athalin, bearers of letters from Louis-Philippe, had been received at Vienna and St. Petersburg. Nicholas answered Louis-Philippe in a very haughty way, and Bernadotte was constrained to affect great cold-

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ness towards the Revolution of July, and to view it apparently through the eyes of the Tsar; the former Jacobin denounced the revolutionist parties in Belgium, in Italy, in Poland. The Swedish diplomats declaimed against Belgium, against the International Revolution. At times Bernadotte took off the mask and showed his sentiments. He was, for a while, afraid of a new coalition against France, but when the prospect of war became dimmer, he became more free to express his sympathies. He had always courteous words for Louis-Philippe personally. It seemed as if he felt that Louis-Philippe, in order to be admitted to the European Concert, had to make the sacrifices which he himself had made in order to enter into the Olympus of kings. He really wished for the stability of the new order of things in France, and severely disapproved the attempts made at Strasbourg and at Boulogne by Prince Louis Napoleon.

In 1840 Charles XIV. apprehended he should witness a new combination formed against France, on the occasion of a revival of the Eastern question. He was afraid of being obliged to enter into it. During this crisis he said: "The Paris papers threaten Europe with a propaganda, and speak of retaking the left bank of the Rhine. This indiscretion would suffice to create a German nationality. I fought long to assure to France her natural boundaries. She lost them by war, and I doubt if war will give them back to her. This will take place only by negotiation and exchanges of territory." Bernadotte, who had often been denounced as a traitor, had almost become popular in France; his name was inscribed on the Arc de Triomphe. Louis-Philippe had his portrait placed at Versailles, in the palace of the kings which he had dedicated "to all the glories of France." His name was given to one of the streets of Pau. He wrote to the Prefect of the Lower Pyrenees: "In becoming a Swede I have not ceased to think often of the interesting country where I was born, and I am always happy to learn that the inhabitants of Béarn continue to prosper under the ægis of a wise and enlightened Government." As happens to every man, Bernadotte, in his later life, returned more and more to the memories of his childhood and his youth. He received with great honors all the distinguished Frenchmen who came to Sweden. In 1840, when he heard that the remains of Napoleon were coming back from St. Helena, he was so affected that he wept. When he received, on his death-bed, an expression of sympathy from Louis-Philippe, he exclaimed, "So there is still a Frenchman who takes interest in me!"

He died on the 3d of March, 1844, at the age of eighty years, the oldest of the kings of Europe, and the last but one of the Marshals created in 1804. He had given his subjects thirty years of peace. His successor, the present King of Sweden, was the only sovereign, with the King of Greece, who visited Paris during the Exposition of 1900. He thus showed his sympathy for the country where Bernadotte was born.

Correspondence.

THE WAY OF IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your powerful articles on the question of the conferring of the LL.D. degree by Harvard College on President McKinley served to arouse discussion in the Boston papers, and they will serve to set a standard long after this particular case has been forgotten. The Boston *Herald* took a postal-card ballot of Harvard graduates, about 80 per cent. of the 800 who replied favoring the conferring of this particular degree. But it deserves to be recorded that a large minority of those who voted yes did so not because they approved the principle of giving degrees to the President of the United States *ex officio*, but because they felt that, since the Harvard Corporation had gone so far in the case of Mr. McKinley, to withhold the degree now would be discourteous.

I have no doubt that, if the graduates at large had been informed of the methods by which the Corporation was entrapped, they would have voted very differently. Even now, conversation with Harvard graduates picked at random proves how few of them know the circumstances. As you merely alluded to them in your articles, it may be well, for historical record, to state the facts briefly. Senator Hoar, who is this year President of the Harvard Alumni Association, on his own responsibility asked President McKinley to attend the Harvard Commencement. Mr. McKinley seems to have been easily persuaded, probably imagining that Mr. Hoar was authorized to give the invitation. Then the Senator announced to the Harvard Corporation that the President was coming. Now, neither the Corporation nor the Board of Overseers had had the least intention of inviting Mr. McKinley, for it was generally recognized that his policy has caused so irreconcilable a division of opinion that Harvard College ought not to seem to take party sides by conferring a degree upon him. The Corporation, on receiving the news, was perplexed; finally, it reluctantly concluded that, for appearance' sake, it must offer Mr. McKinley the degree. Then it reported to the Overseers what had happened, with the intimation that it was in a fix. It is to be noted that Senator Hoar chose for his plot a time when President Eliot was out of the country; possibly the guileless Senator knew, from past experience, that in matters which concern Harvard College President Eliot does not allow Senators or other persons to usurp his authority.

If any argument were needed to urge the abolition of conferring *ex-officio* degrees on public men while in office, is it not enough to cite this case? If the degree shall be conferred on Mr. McKinley, where will be the honor or the compliment for him, since it is known that neither the Corporation nor the Overseers had any intention of giving it? No wonder that Senator Hoar and his supporters in the press cried out against the propriety of discussing the subject in public. Until the matter reached the Overseers, he had successfully concealed his work, for the Corporation very naturally did not care to proclaim just how he had cornered it; but the Overseers are a large and leaky body, and they quite as naturally did not care to shoulder the responsibility of having been tricked by their colleague.

A. B. and A. M.

May 5, 1901.

SAUCE FOR THE GOOSE, BUT NOT FOR THE GANDER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Others besides Southern cane-sugar and Western beet-sugar men will object to the repeal of the duty on Cuban sugar. The San Francisco *Call*, Mr. Spreckels's paper, in a leading article on the 25th inst., asks: "Why should those influences which demand free importation of sugar for a foreign country already under the greatest of obligations to the United States, be so persistently opposed to doing justice to our countrymen of the Philippines?" The writer adds immediately: "We do not know why. We give it up," but it is impossible to believe that he is so blissfully ignorant of reasons which are obvious to every intelligent person who has given any attention to the subject. Rather must one admire such professions of inability to fathom the apparent contradictions of "expansion" politics as humble reverences to the powers that be, the *morituri vos salutamus* of unswerving supporters of the Administration.

Yours most respectfully, C. J. G.

Oakland, Cal., April 30, 1901.

GIBBON'S LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After the death of Gibbon, William Beckford bought his library. In 1815 or 1816 Beckford gave the books to his physician at Lausanne, Dr. Frédéric Schöll. Gen. Meredith Read states ('Historic Studies in Vaud, Berne, and Savoy,' vol. ii., p. 505) that in September, 1879, Dr. Schöll's daughter told him that five hundred of these books were sold to the librarian of an American university. Students of what Sheridan called the luminous (subsequently saying he meant *vo*luminous) pages of Gibbon would be glad to know the present whereabouts of these books. Possibly some reader of the *Nation* can give the desired information. D. M.

Chicago, May 3, 1901.

Notes.

Doubleday, Page & Co. are about to bring out 'The Niagara Book,' illustrated, as a guide in connection with the Pan-American Exposition; 'Nature Biographies,' by Prof. Clarence Moores Weed; and 'Camera Shots at Big Game,' by A. G. Wallihan. The same firm will found in the autumn a new monthly magazine, *American Country Life*, under the expert editorship of Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell University.

A new volume of poems, 'Weeds by the Wall,' by Madison Cawein, is to be published in a limited edition by John P. Morton & Co., Louisville, Ky., on June 1.

More announcements from Macmillan Company are 'Aristotle's Psychology,' translated and edited by Prof. William A. Hammond of Cornell; 'Is, Hic, Iste, Ipse,' a study of these Latin demonstrative pronouns in their changes to the time of Isidore, by Prof. Clarence Linton Meader; and 'A Search for an Infidel,' by the Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones.

'Unconscious Comedians,' short stories by Caroline Duer, will be published in the fall by Dodd, Mead & Co.

A. S. Barnes & Co. have nearly ready 'Home Thoughts,' selections from the papers of that name contributed to the Saturday supplement of the *Evening Post*.

By June 1st, Mr. H. P. Biggar's 'Early Trading Companies of New France: A Contribution to the History of Commerce and

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Discovery in North America' will be off the press. This is a work of original research both in France and in Spain, and more than a third of the volume will consist of an appendix of sources. The edition for sale will not exceed 550 copies, and orders should be addressed either to the Librarian, University of Toronto, Canada; to the Boston Book Company, Freeman Place Chapel; or to P. S. King & Son, Nos. 2 and 4 Great Smith Street, Westminster, London.

Beginning in April, Archibald Constable & Co., London, will issue each month in eight parts 'The Stall-Plates of the Knights of the Order of the Garter, 1348-1485,' a series of ninety full-sized colored facsimiles, with descriptive notes and historical introductions by W. H. St. John Hope, M.A. The subjects are "the splendid enamelled and painted gilt-metal plates affixed to the backs of the stalls in the quire of St. George's Chapel, Windsor," and constituting "one of the most remarkable displays of mediæval armory to be found in Europe."

A new and materially enlarged edition of the German "Verbatim Edition" of the copyright laws and treaties of all countries, revised by the Secretary of the International Bureau for Intellectual Property, Prof. Ernst Röthlisberger, will shortly be issued by the publishing firm of G. Hedeler at Leipzig.

A critical edition of Zwingli's works has been really a desideratum, the Zurich reformer having been comparatively neglected. The entire works of Melanchthon and Calvin are found in the *Corpus Reformatorum*, while Luther's voluminous writings are once more appearing in the famous "Kaiser" edition at Weimar in splendid shape. Now Zwingli is to receive the attention he deserves, his editors being Professors Egli of Zurich and G. Finster of Basel. The publishers will be Schwetschke & Sons of Berlin, who expect to issue the edition in 120 parts—in large orders, at 2.40 marks per part. Unfortunately, the publishers can promise only three to four parts yearly for the present, so that it looks as though it would take longer to finish this undertaking than even the Kaiser edition of Luther, which, begun in 1883, is still scarcely half completed.

Dr. John R. Clark Hall, author of 'A Concise Anglo-Saxon Dictionary,' presents a useful prose version of 'Beowulf, and the Fight at Finnsburg' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: The Macmillan Co.). The actual translation is not remarkable. Dr. Hall has done his work faithfully and intelligently, but his prose fails in speed, and his diction is too much made up of rather commonplace Latinity adequately to suggest the native vigor and poetic strangeness of the original. Herein it is hard to see where he has improved upon the work of Earle or Garnett. The special merit of the book lies in its make-up and in the well-considered introduction and appendices. The insertion of a compendious, italicized analysis in the body of the text will facilitate the work of the student. The indices of names and of things are carefully worked out. The latter, indeed, taken by itself, constitutes an excellent account of the antiquities of the poem. The division of the introduction under the headings "Matters of Fact" and "Matters of Conjecture" is commendable, and the discussion of the dangerous ground in the latter is eminently safe. One may differ from Dr. Hall's theory that the poem was written between 660 and 700 A. D., by one man, "an Anglian, most probably a Mercian," "a heathen by birth, who had been converted to Christianity, but had not attained to anything beyond a rudimentary knowledge of its doctrines." But all this is advanced without undue assurance, and the propositions throughout are tenable and consistent. Well-executed manuscript facsimiles, illustrations, and maps add appreciably to the value of the volume.

Mr. Frederic Harrison has issued through the Macmillan Co. his recently delivered Harvard lecture upon "The Writings of King Alfred." The pamphlet is distinctly an address with the rhetorical virtues proper in that kind. But while it adds little to the sum of current knowledge and critical opinion concerning the Saxon monarch, it is of much value as a discriminating, if enthusiastic, appreciation. Mr. Harrison leaves it to others to discourse of Alfred the codifier of laws, the educational reformer, the builder of a navy; and concerns himself with him as the first master of English prose style. Directing his attention to the translation of Boethius, with its copious additions and emendations, he makes out a very good case for the originality and force of Alfred's literary genius. He is scarcely just, perhaps, to the merits of the original Latin of the 'De Consolatione'; but this is easily forgiven in one who holds a brief for the *pater patriæ*.

The imprint of the same firm is upon Prof. George R. Carpenter's 'Notes for Teachers of English Composition.' Although primarily intended for such as use the author's 'Rhetoric,' the tract is not devoid of interest for any person who cares to know the aim and methods of the best contemporary teaching of the art of composition. The essay is sensible throughout; and its insistence upon the connection between correct expression and reasonable, informed thinking is timely. Whoever has adventured the wearisome way of theme-correcting, will be grateful for this advice *ex cathedra:* "When reading essays, make yourself as comfortable as possible, and take measures to guard against interruption."

'Australasia the Commonwealth and New Zealand' (Macmillan) in its main theme maintains the character for excellence of the "Temple Primers." Not always is interest so well sustained in severe compression of a subject. Apart from the cruel treatment of the aborigines, the history of the white colonization of Australasia has all the charm of a story. We never realized this more than in the perusal of this little book, while remembering from personal experience what Australia (then little over fifty years colonized) was in the fifties. Upon the whole, Mr. Jose writes of the native races in a sympathetic spirit. He does not, however, do justice to the Hau-Hau movement in New Zealand. There were elements of nobility connected with it. The manual is marred by the too frequent recurrence of the British "we," "we." Britain did not "undertake" the "task," or "choose" with an ulterior noble object. She chose Australia and Van Dieman's Land as convict settlements because it suited her convenience. They have been made into a commonwealth and New Zealand into a nation by those who there sought their advantage. The comparison, at page 105, of the Boer commandos with the bushrangers, and of "the British troops now struggling in South Africa" with the Australian mounted police, is as ungenerous as it is uncalled for.

'The Boys' Club' (London: D. Nutt), by B. Paul Neuman, can be strongly commended to the attention of all who are interested in the welfare of the boys of the working class in our cities. It is full of practical suggestions in regard to formation, membership, government, and the provisions for education and recreation, with frequent references to the experiences of successful London clubs. The author bases his work on the conviction that almost nothing is done for the great number of boys who, after leaving school, must become wage-earners, to whom night schools have no attraction, and from whom a large part of the criminal class is drawn. Accordingly, he advocates taking the boys a short time before leaving school, or soon after, while yet amenable to discipline; would have the government from above, and education and amusement the main features. There should be no attempt to make the club self-supporting, as in this case it will give merely a bare refuge from the streets. The endeavor must be made to secure a "religious atmosphere." There are supplementary chapters by experts on gymnastics, cricket, rowing, and swimming.

Under the very gentle designation of 'Speech-Hesitation,' Mrs. Ellery Thorpe sends out (E. S. Werner Publishing Co.) a little volume devoted to the infelicities and the relief of stammerers. Such defectives range from those whose syllables trip over one another or at times fail to issue, to those whose nervous force is so imperfectly or irregularly distributed as to put them in the class of complete incapables, and they appeal for help. Evidently the author has treated many of these, and she has evolved an hypothesis as to the condition which she terms "throat-contraction," with the qualification that "nervousness always exists in this form of physical derangement," and by an ingenious inversion explains that when the "contraction" disappears, the nervousness goes with it. It would not be profitable to follow the vagaries that riot through these rambling pages. The author evidently deeply sympathizes with the affliction, and has devoted much energy with apparent success to its relief. It has been estimated that the hesitants in speech are nearly threefold the total of the blind, the mute, and the insane. This we cannot verify, but the specific assertion that there are 500 in the public schools of Boston, or seven in the thousand, who speak with difficulty, doubtless may be proved or disproved. To recognize these chorea-victims as a special class and give them competent instructors equally with the dull of hearing and poor of sight, while taking special pains out of school to prevent the mental suffering and the absolute retrogression that sometimes follow, would be utilitarian as well as humane.

Dr. George S. Keith has added to his earlier little volumes half a dozen unconventional essays 'On Sanitary and Other Matters' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan), about affairs of daily life. "The Waste of Water" refers entirely to conditions at Edinburgh, and incidentally reveals that there the noxious pan-closet, for which he would substitute the earth system, is in common use, and that the sewer ventilation, except as into the houses, is imperfect. The suggestion that a damp towel adequately replaces the morning dip indi-

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cates a willingness to overturn that part of the British Constitution which rests upon the tub, and will be reprobated accordingly by those to whom immersion is an article of secular faith. In Dr. Keith's experience, scarlet fever is a mild disease with healthy children, and in such a family he encourages its spread (in a sanitary residence). There is none more treacherous, and this teaching is liable to sacrifice life. He is heretical also about the trained nurse, "whose services may be invaluable—when you can get her." Dr. Keith's essential doctrine, here as in his 'Fads,' is that too much flesh ("butcher's meat," with old-fashioned insistence, he defines it) is eaten by young and old. It deranges the morals of youth and the digestion of age, he maintains. Nevertheless, it is a satisfaction to read an independent thinker, if one uses his own judgment in adopting the teachings.

After an investigation, Lieut.-Col. A. M. Miller, Corps of Engineers, in charge of the Washington aqueduct, reported, March 28, 1900, in favor of purification of the Washington water supply by the mechanical or rapid method of filtration. Committees of the Medical Society of the District of Columbia, and of the Board of Trade, criticised this report, and urged the adoption of the slow sand-filter. The Senate Committee held a hearing in New York on the relative merits of the two systems, at which several experts were in attendance. Three of these, Messrs. Hering, Fuller and Hazen, reported in writing later on, recommending slow sand-filters. Sufficient reasons for this reversal of Col. Miller do not appear, either in their formal report, their statements at the hearing, or the several papers which are appended to the Government document, 'An Inquiry Held by Direction of the United States Senate Committee on the District of Columbia,' just issued. The arguments for and against both systems of purification are very fully stated, and it is clearly the opinion of all the experts save one that, with proper attention, either system is efficient in removing bacteria; that slow sand-filtration is most effective for clear water—rapid filtration, with a coagulant, for turbid waters; and that the Potomac water is on the border-line between these two classes, being at times turbid to a degree which would give mechanical filters the advantage.

The archæological part of the Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund consists mainly of notes by Prof. Clermont-Ganneau, a list of amphora handles with Greek stamps, and a report upon some rock-cut tombs near Jerusalem by Mr. Macalister. There are two ethnographic papers upon the Bedawîn by gentlemen long resident in Palestine. Mr. Baldensperger describes the life of the women, and gives an outline, with numerous extracts, of one of their favorite legends. The Rev. J. Zeller treats of the race in general, and endeavors to show to what is due their extraordinary preservation "amidst their incessant strife against misery and want, and amidst their bloodshed and wars, from sinking into the state of a savage and utterly barbarous people." Among the causes—as, their patriarchal form of government, and their pride in the purity of their race—he holds the principal to be "the gift of poetry, which elevates their character and preserves their better qualities even under the most adverse circumstances." They are "commonly unable to read or write, but the purity of their language is such that they easily make poems, which, if written down by others, are found to be grammatically correct." As a race, their character is marked by such striking contrasts as great instability and great tenacity, lasting love and lasting hatred, honesty and treachery, childlike simplicity and deep cunning. But with all their noble qualities they are a great hindrance to progress in the East, "for where the Bedawîn wander no tree grows and no corn can be raised, and their ravages are as fatal to agriculture as those of the locusts."

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number three, are upon the delta of the Trombetas, a little-known tributary of the Amazon, and on the 1896 earthquake in Iceland. Dr. H. Gravelius maintains that, of all forms of vegetation, forests have the greatest absorbent influence upon the surface moisture and ground water. Recent investigations, mainly in Russia, have proved that while in the subsoil of the open plain there were abundant springs, in the subsoil of the adjoining forest not a trace of ground water was to be found. This fact, however, does not affect the value of the forests on the hill slopes as a protection against the destructive agency of floods. From an article upon the characters employed in printing by the European peoples in 1900, it appears that these are eight in number and include Irish, Arabic, and Hebrew—the last not being represented on the accompanying map.

Prof. Gustav Retzius of Stockholm, in a new issue of his 'Biologische Untersuchungen,' publishes an interesting paper on the brain of Mme. Sonya Kovalevski, the eminent Russian mathematician, who was born in Moscow in January, 1850 (not December, 1853, as generally stated in biographical notices), and died in February, 1891, seven years after her appointment to an associate chair of mathematics at the University of Stockholm. Professor Retzius finds in the brain of this gifted woman no marked departure from the ordinary type of brain-structure, it being of the normal form found in women generally, although of rather small size and of limited complexity. Of a certain interest is the shortening of the Sylvian fissure, a feature which was also distinctive of the brain of the mathematician Gyldén. Professor Retzius, as a result of his researches, is not disposed to deny the interesting conclusion latterly reached by Professor Möbius that the "mathematical centrum" is situated in the lateral parts of the frontal lobes of the brains—a view with which the condition of the brains of Gyldén and Kovalevski in no way conflicts; but he considers our knowledge of the subject too limited to permit as yet of a definite conclusion being arrived at. Rather would he believe that this problematical centrum is situated in the parietal region of the brain.

The seventh section of Henry Carrington Bolton's 'Select Bibliography of Chemistry' appears as No. 1253 of the "Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections." It is devoted exclusively to academic dissertations, especially those from the universities of France, Germany, Russia, and the United States, published independently of periodicals. This forms the third volume of the Bibliography, and completes the undertaking begun in 1888. The entire work contains more than 25,000 entries.

'The Anatomy and Histology of the Adult Female Mosquito' is the subject of a report to the Malaria Committee of the Royal Society of London by S. R. Christophers. The structure of this insect has lately become of considerable importance in following out the development of the parasites of bird and human malaria, and this report describes more fully than has heretofore been done the organs and tissues of *Culex* and *Anopheles*, two genera of the *Culicidæ*. The differences between them are slight, and are shown in a more robust exo-skeleton in Culex, and in the possession of tubular salivary glands, while those of Anopheles are sacculated.

Under the title, "Der Loewe von Babylon," the German Orientgesellschaft has published a splendid reproduction in colors of the famous lion clay relief found about a twelvemonth ago by Dr. Koldewey in the ruins of Babylon. The reproduction is one-half the size of the original—namely, 1.95 metres in length, and 90 centimetres in height. This relief is one of the many that made up the frieze along the famous Procession Street of the God Marduk. The dark-blue background with yellow stripes, together with six white rosettes, and the lion in white alabaster clay, form one of the most magnificent specimens of the polychromic art that Oriental antiquities have produced, and the best specimen of the brick enamelling arts of Babylonia extant. At the same time the relief serves to demonstrate the close connection between the work of the Babylonians and of the Persians in this line, as is shown by a comparison with the similar unique and splendid Persian lion found in the Louvre. It is evident, however, that the work of the Babylonians was superior to that of the Persians, as appears in detail from the extensive account which Prof. Fr. Delitzsch has issued in connection with this publication of the Society, of which he is the leading literary representative.

The name of the moving spirit and musical director in the approaching Bach festival at Bethlehem, Pa., was disfigured in our correspondent's letter last week on page 355 of the *Nation*. The organist of Lehigh University Chapel as well as of the Moravian Church is Prof. J. Fred Wolle.

—*Science* gives a particularly beautiful reproduction of the medal lately presented to Dr. S. M. Babcock of the University of Wisconsin by the Legislature of that State, in recognition of the great value of his inventions and discoveries and of "his unselfish dedication of these inventions to the public service." It is truly a remarkable event when the State bestows its official recognition and reward upon the man of science, and it is to be hoped that this is a precedent which will have a wide following. It would have been hard to find a more suitable occasion for introducing the custom, for Dr. Babcock's work is at once of great scientific interest and of great practical benefit; moreover, he has refused to take out a patent on his invention, and has given it freely and generously to the world. His discoveries in the field of agricultural science have been many, but it is his system of rapidly determining the amount of butter fat in milk that has revolutionized the dairy industry, and by its speedy extension into all the dairy countries of the world has contributed to the renown of American science. It is not his own State only that has honored him. "Although not an exhibitor, he was

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awarded last year the Grand Prix d'honneur at the Paris Exposition, and recently the dairymen of New Zealand have sent him a beautiful testimonial in the shape of an elegantly bound hand-painted album of New Zealand scenery."

—The Museum Umlauff, in Hamburg, has recently acquired one of the most interesting specimens of natural history that it has been for many years the good fortune of any museum to obtain. It is a specimen of the male gorilla, which measured when killed 8.86 feet in height, and slightly more than nine feet in expanse of arms. This extraordinary creature, weighing about 500 lbs., was obtained in the forest of the station of Yaunde, in the German Cameroon region, the precious trophy of the hunter H. Paschen. The fatal shot brought the giant down from the crown of a cotton-tree in which it had taken refuge while pursued. To appreciate fully the dimensions—how they transcend those ordinarily assumed to measure the biggest of the apes—one has but to recall the size of the largest for which Du Chaillu pleaded in his 'Explorations and Adventures in Equatorial Africa,' and which for many years failed of recognition by scientists. In this in many ways remarkable work, which appeared just forty years ago, and achieved a reputation for fanciful description as well as for very accurate statement of facts, it is modestly stated that the largest specimen obtained by or for the author measured only five feet eight inches, although it is conjectured that a specimen then belonging to Prof. Jeffries Wyman, and we believe now in the possession of the Boston Society of Natural History, must have had a height of six feet two inches. The present specimen is, therefore, nearly one-half taller than the famous Wyman specimen, and dwarfs the Du Chaillu "monsters" almost into pigmies. It is in the presence of specimens of this kind that one realizes the curiosities that are still a part of the existing fauna of the globe, and the needlessness of looking entirely to past records for that which is or appears to be monstrous and abnormal.

—In 'Hero Patriots of the Nineteenth Century,' a neatly printed duodecimo of 329 pages (New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.), Mr. Edgar Sanderson, whose 'History of the World' was noticed rather favorably in these columns two years ago, depicts the careers of some of the soldiers who fought successfully or unsuccessfully to free their country from a foreign yoke, or to preserve it from an invading foe. The biographies include Martin Diaz, the once famous but now little remembered guerrilla leader in the Peninsular war, a martyr to the cause of liberty under the execrable Ferdinand VII.; Andreas Hofer, whose exploits in the Tyrol in 1809-'10 showed that the Alps still bred the heroism that had immortalized Morgarten and Sempach; Abd-el-Kader, who all but baffled the arms of Louis-Philippe; Shamyl, who for a quarter of a century defied the Northern bear in the fastnesses of the Caucasus; Daniele Manin, under whom the republic of St. Mark flickered up for a brief term, fifty years after its extinction by Bonaparte; and that more fortunate breaker of fetters, Giuseppe Garibaldi. There is, in addition, a chapter devoted to the achievements of the heroes of the Greek Revolution. The volume, we presume, is primarily intended to be a book for boys (English boys just now need not go beyond the Transvaal for lessons in "patriotism"), but its contents and manner of treatment are such as also to invite more mature readers. The weak point about it is that the author has sought to make it too interesting. He has woven into some of his narratives, notably the lives of Diaz and Shamyl, an amount of romance which argues ill for his critical faculty. The cool way in which Mr. Sanderson serves up before the untutored reader the minutest details of hair-breadth escapes, the accounts of which could have been reported only from mouth to mouth, and handed down by tradition, is amusing. The style is very uneven, the English in some parts being sound and vigorous and in others slovenly (witness the remarkable account of the River Kuban on page 238). In treating of the heroic struggle for Greek independence, Mr. Sanderson seeks to impress upon the reader the fact that Turkish atrocities were not much more than on a par with the fiendish butcheries perpetrated by the Greek patriots. Taken with a goodly lump of salt in their most romantic portions, these sketches will help to fill out profitably a half hour now and then.

—In his 'Commercial Federation and Colonial Trade Policy' (Swan Sonnenschein & Co.), Mr. John Davidson writes from the colonial point of view, and with a thorough dislike of "that ugly phase of public opinion which we know as little-Englandism." As the dominant question in colonial policy is that of markets and consumers, commercial considerations must control the political, and lead to the adoption of some system by which the mother country and dependencies shall be mutually benefited. It is out of the question to revert to the mercantile system of the last century; and it is equally impossible to bring about free trade in the British Empire, as so many of the colonies obtain the larger part of their revenues from taxes upon imports, British and foreign alike. An alternative scheme, that Great Britain should impose a discriminating duty on foreign products while admitting colonial products free of duty, is not very admissible in the present condition of English opinion. As a last resort, the example of Canada is cited, where a tariff gives a decided reduction in duties on British manufactures, and it is on these lines that Mr. Davidson looks for future development of a commercial federation within the Empire. Canada made this concession freely; it is now England's turn to grant some differential treatment in favor of Canadian products and exports. This may best be accomplished by removing natural obstacles to trade with the colonies, and even by subsidies to freight steamers running to colonial ports—a proposition clearly contrary to free trade. What recommends Mr. Davidson's book is the frank recognition of the many obstacles in the way of such a commercial confederation. Preferential duties would for some time raise prices in the English market, and the colonial interest could not develop unless there was such a rise in price. Even so low a duty as 3 per cent. on foreign imports would amount to a tax of more than $50,000,000 a year on the consumer, and on the single item of wheat would tax each head of population two shillings, without considering the enhancing of the tax before it was finally paid. Upon a year's consumption of four items—wheat, meat, sugar, and butter—the consumer would be charged five shillings by the duties alone. In return for such a sacrifice by Great Britain it is doubtful if the colonies would derive any proportionate benefit. Their labor would be turned from manufactures, which their tariffs have so often unduly favored, into the attractive occupations favored by the preferential duties: the old timber duties on Canadian lumber are cases in point. Agriculture might flourish, but on an insecure basis, and only so long as the markets of the United Kingdom remained quasi-monopoly markets for colonial products. An imperial customs union is hardly to be thought of, because it would deprive the colonies of independent action, and renew the problems of central administration settled for all time by the revolt of the English colonies in America. To some of Mr. Davidson's political conclusions exception might be taken, but his little volume deserves a careful reading.

—In a privately printed pamphlet on the rise and fall of Smeerenburg, Spitsbergen, Sir Martin Conway relates the history of "Blubbertown," and incidentally clears away some of the legends which have gathered about this seventeenth-century settlement in the high north. This summer village began in the early years of the century through the erection of try-works on shore to render the oil from whales killed by the Dutch whaleships in the vicinity. At first it consisted of the copper try-works and tents for men working ashore, on Amsterdam Island in northwest Spitsbergen; in 1617 a few huts were erected, and in 1623 were replaced by new and substantial houses of stone and wood with tiled roofs, warehouses, etc. When the season ended, the tools, boats, etc., were stored, with any surplus of oil and baleen, and left until the following summer. The ships were anchored and moored, and the pursuit of whales carried on in shallops, while the rendering was done on shore. There were a church and a small fort with cannon, and about a score of try-works. In 1633-43 Smeerenburg was a busy and populous place during the brief summer, but its size has been greatly exaggerated in current legend. About 1,200 men were all that could be reasonably accommodated ashore, and the extreme estimate for the crews of the fleet would not exceed 4,000 to 5,000 more, a total of less than half the numbers often spoken of. With the rise of the industry to which the settlement was due, there was an interesting conflict of interests, political as well as economic, among the nationalities concerned with the fisheries. This lasted until the whales abandoned the shores and bays and had to be pursued in the open sea, and the practice sprang up of carrying the minced blubber back to Europe. About 1665 Smeerenburg was abandoned, and occasional visitors used the wood of the houses for fuel or burned them for pastime. To-day only the merest traces of the village can be distinguished, and the story of the settlement, happily preserved in this little monograph, has become almost legendary.

—The appearance in the early days of 1901 of the second half of Dr. Keutgen's 'Urkunden zur städtischen Verfassungsgeschichte' (Berlin: Felber) completes the task undertaken by the editor in 1899, and puts into our hands, now that the volume is completed, a substantial collection of 437 documents, occupying in all, with the very complete "Städteverzeichniss" and "Sachver-

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zeichniss" at the end, rather over seven hundred pages. About a third of the documents seem to be in Latin, the remainder in Old German. They are arranged under the three heads of "The Origin of the Civic Constitution," "Town Ordinances," and the "Town System in the Period of Prosperity," with careful subdivisions according to subject and locality. The book is intended for seminary use, and the editor has scrupulously abstained from indicating his own opinions. We observe, indeed, that he assigns thirty-two pages to "Markt und Kaufleute" and only six pages to "Die Stadt als Burg"—his own favorite conception. The well-known passage about "agrarii milites" from Widukind is one of the few exceptions which he allows to the general rule not to admit "narrative sources." The collection will be extremely useful; our only fear is lest the very excellence of the "Sachverzeichniss" should encourage the discussion of rival theories of "origins." The best thing that students can do is to forget all the theories and read the documents through. The volume is the first in a series of "Ausgewählte Urkunden zur Deutschen Verfassungsgeschichte," to be edited by Prof. von Below with Dr. Keutgen's assistance; and the limitation to Germany harmonizes with Dr. Keutgen's notion of a specifically German development of civic institutions. When similarly complete collections are at our disposal for the municipal history of the other countries of western Europe, it will be possible to institute a comparison. Without such a comparison, German town history probably loses much of its significance.

LEA'S MORISCOS.

The Moriscos of Spain: Their Conversion and Expulsion. By Henry Charles Lea, LL.D. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co. 1901. Pp. xii, 463.

All who appreciate genuine scholarship and have at heart America's part in the world of learning, must sincerely rejoice when news comes of another volume from Mr. Lea's pen. While his work at times appeals especially to the rather small circle of those interested in the jurisprudence of the Mediæval Church—to them it is absolutely indispensable—there are many chapters in the 'History of the Inquisition,' 'Superstition and Force,' and the 'History of Sacerdotal Celibacy' which ought to hold the attention of the more seriously minded general reader. It is a high tribute to the more intelligent of the Anti-Clerical party in France that they are using Mr. Lea's works as an efficient weapon in their opposition to the Roman Church. A complete translation, by M. Salomon Reinach, of the 'History of the Inquisition' is, our readers are aware, now appearing at Paris, for the moderate sum of three francs and a half a volume. It is to be feared that few in this country realize that Mr. Lea is the only American historian who, by reason of the extraordinary volume of his work, the inherent intricacy and obscurity of his chosen subject, and the fundamental character of his research, deserves to be ranked with the greatest historians of the century. Beside his astonishing achievements the popular treatises of Prescott and Motley sink, from the scholar's standpoint, into relative insignificance.

The present contribution to the history of Spanish woes is but the amplification of a chapter originally intended for the monumental history of the Spanish Inquisition which Mr. Lea has under way, and to which his well-known 'History of the Inquisition in the Middle Ages' forms in one sense the prologomenon. The subject of the Moriscos and their fate clearly merited a fuller treatment than it could receive in the larger treatise, and so the author turned aside to investigate and present this matter; for it "not only embodies a tragedy commanding the deepest sympathy, but it epitomizes nearly all the errors and tendencies which combined to cast down Spain, in a little more than a century, from its splendor under Charles V. to its humiliation under Carlos II."

This "splendor under Charles V." merits a moment's attention. It fell to the lot of the late Professor Baumgarten, after writing a work upon Spain during the Napoleonic period, to turn back in after years and prepare a history of Charles V. In the earlier book he gives the traditional picture of the wonderful prosperity, resources, and hope of Spain after the consolidation under Ferdinand and Isabella; he makes the usual reflections upon the incredible, cruel perversity which brought to naught Spain's legitimate dreams of permanent grandeur. The careful review of the condition of the Iberian kingdoms at the opening of the reign of Charles V. which he made later led him to an explicit revocation of his earlier notions. From the letters of Peter Martyr, the reports of Guicciardini, and other contemporaneous information, he reached a conclusion, comforting to the sincere believers in the continuity of history, that Spain never attained the degree of organization and prosperity usually assumed to have existed at the opening of the sixteenth century; hence its supposed decline can no longer be attributed mainly to the blind religious zeal of the immediate successors of Charles, but to congenital weakness, which a stimulant of American gold freely administered overcame for a time. While Mr. Lea is not apparently acquainted with Baumgarten's statements, he furnishes abundant evidence that the German was perfectly right in his unfavorable review of Spanish social and political resources. He emphasizes, too, the extraordinary development of religious and race intolerance in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

Strangely enough, there was "little antagonism either of race or religion" during the centuries when the Christian princes were reconquering the regions occupied by the Saracens. The peaceable Moors were left in undisturbed enjoyment of their religion and laws. But the Church outside of Spain was horrified by the fraternal relations between Christian and infidel, and gradually awakened a spirit of intolerance. Yet while the Jews suffered terribly, the Moors were left in peace until, with the appearance of Ximines and the revived Inquisition, enforced conversion began to make their lives a burden.

"Yet to the last there were learned doctors who maintained that the coerced baptism of the Moriscos was a sacrilege and invalid, and so was the continued baptism of the children against the wishes of the parents; nor do the defenders of the work seem to realize the true import of the miracles which they triumphantly allege—that when the Moors of Aragon were forcibly converted, in 1526, an image of the Holy Sepulchre in the Carmelite Convent of Saragossa wept for twenty-four hours, and the images of Our Lady of Tobet and some associated angels sweated profusely for thirty-six hours, so that a vase of this precious liquor was collected and preserved, of which, in 1590, Philip II. devoutly begged a portion. When the Moriscos were expelled in 1610, this marvellous fluid suddenly evaporated, even that belonging to the King."

Charles V. insisted upon unity of faith throughout his Spanish kingdoms, and, in spite of pledges to the Moors and of serious resistance, a conversion by edict took place to which the Moriscos submitted, continuing, however, their old religious observances in a more or less public fashion. An attempt to keep these nominal converts out of the clutches of the Inquisition, on the ground that they could not be expected to change their habits all at once and avoid all the offences which the Inquisition was wont to regard as sure indications of heresy, proved unsuccessful, but it is comforting to find that the poor Saracens got at least some of the satisfaction from sanbenitos that the early Christians derived from the lions. It was reputed an honor to appear in the *auto de fé*, and we hear of a woman who, when given a sanbenito, requested another for her child, as the weather was cool. The executioner who scourged the Moors in an *auto de fé*, upon taking up a collection from the victims for favors conferred, was refused payment by one man on the ground that he had not been flogged. When it was discovered that he had been inadvertently omitted, he received his lashes with great satisfaction.

Mr. Lea has given a careful account of the interesting efforts to bring about a real conversion of the Moriscos through persuasion and decent treatment. One of the great obstacles to the amalgamation of the races was the refusal of the popes to make the tolerant concessions urged by the more intelligent Spanish governmental officials, both ecclesiastical and lay. The conduct of Philip II., while full of indecision, shows an appreciation of the real conditions of success, and at his death he was planning how the religious instruction of the Moors could be secured, and was urging Clement VIII. to reconsider his refusal to exempt the Moriscos from the rule requiring them to denounce their accomplices, which formed a barrier to voluntary conversion.

The friendly relations between the races of Spain had been disturbed and then destroyed by religious fanaticism, with the natural results.

"There came a change which led the Spaniard to treat the Morisco with the galling contempt which Bishop Guevara deprecated, and which inevitably was repaid with hatred. So little respect had been shown by the rulers to plighted faith, where the Moriscos were concerned, that this contempt not unnaturally led the people to regard them as entitled to no protection from the law, and as subject to arbitrary abuse and oppression."

When we consider that "the Moriscos were well-nigh supporting the whole kingdom with the products of their toil," and played the most important economic rôle, it is easy to see how fatal this national animosity must have been. No student of Spanish history since the opening of the sixteenth century can afford to neglect the data which Mr. Lea has patiently collected in regard to the economic and financial situation of the country.

Besides the religious and economic prob-

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lems which the treatment of the Moors forced upon the incompetent and irresolute King Philip and his councillors, a new danger arose after the revolt of Granada, in 1568, in the proposed alliance between the Moriscos and the foreign enemies of Spain in Africa and France. This added a grave danger to the previous complications, and undoubtedly made expulsion appear a less outrageous measure than would otherwise have been the case. Spanish foreign missions in China and Japan suggested to a contemporary "a man who goes hunting lions and ostriches in Africa, leaving his house full of vipers and scorpions. If a hunter can tame and train a wild falcon, why cannot a wise and learned prelate, by the right methods, gain the heart of a Morisco?" But such moderate counsel could not prevail.

The most horrible suggestions were made for disposing of the obnoxious Moriscos, from a systematic castration of all the male infants to driving the whole people into vessels which were to be scuttled at sea, since it was unwise to add to the African population by permitting them to reach land. In 1509 expulsion was decreed, and carried out—at first, with more system and humanity than would have been expected from the Spanish Government; later with extreme disorder and barbarity. Estimates of the numbers of the Moorish inhabitants of Spain vary greatly. Mr. Lea thinks that 500,000, or less, is a fair guess. "When we compare the inconsiderable number of the exiles with the original large Moorish population of the lands recovered from the reconquest, we can realize how great a proportion of the Mudéjares must have become Christians and have been merged indistinguishably with the conquerors." The only class upon which the country could rely for a proper utilization of its resources, agricultural and industrial, was in this way brutally sacrificed when it might have been readily retained, "perhaps even at the last moment, by wise measures of conciliation and by permitting the expatriation of those who were irreconcilable."

BOOKS ON PAINTING.

La Peinture Romantique: Essai sur l'Évolution de la Peinture Française de 1815 à 1830. Par Léon Rosenthal. Paris: Société Française d'Éditions d'Art. L. Henry May. 1900. Pp. x, 336.

Piero della Francesca. By W. G. Waters, M.A. (Great Masters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

The Painters of Florence from the Thirteenth to the Sixteenth Century. By Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Ady). London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

The Frescoes in the Sixtine Chapel. By Evelyn March Phillipps. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

The printed page of M. Rosenthal's monograph is about 5¾ by 7½ inches, exclusive of margins, and in nearly 350 such pages there is plenty of room for what the author has given us, an exhaustive essay on nearly every phase of the Romantic revolution in French painting. A translation of the table of contents, with brief comment, will serve to show the thoroughness of M. Rosenthal's treatment of his theme.

After an introduction and a "Summary Bibliography," we have Book I., "Before the Battle," divided into seven chapters of about ten pages each. "The Hegemony of David" gives a clear account of the æsthetic principles of the Davidian school, of its unity, and of its powerful organization and almost universal sway. Nevertheless, the rule of David had its limits, of which the second chapter treats, and a great part of this chapter is necessarily devoted to that truly great and personal artist, Prudhon, who seems likely to loom larger in the painting of the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth as time goes on. Then come two chapters on the forewarnings of the revolution: First, "L'Actualité," as shown in portraiture and in the painting of contemporary subjects, *e. g.*, the "Coronation of Napoleon," the "Plague at Jaffa," etc., by David himself and his most devoted adherents; second, the introduction of religious subjects and subjects from mediæval and modern history, notably by the school of Lyons. The fifth chapter deals with the "Æsthetic Causes of the Revolution," of which the most important was the effect produced by the artistic spoils which Bonaparte had accumulated in the Louvre; the sixth, with the influence of English art as brought to bear by the exhibition in Paris of works by Bonington, Constable, and Lawrence. Turner is dismissed with a few words as, however great his personal genius, without appreciable influence on French painting. The seventh chapter, which concludes the first book, shows how the school of David was not succeeded by another "school" of different principles but of similar homogeneity, but rather by a number of independent artists, and how "Individualism and Liberty" became the characteristics of modern art.

Book Second is historical and gives in two chapters a narrative of the fortunes of the fight, chapter first taking us to 1824, and chapter second from 1824 to 1830. The two chapters of Book Third deal respectively with two painters, of whom one has generally been considered the last of the Classicists, and the other the first of the Romanticists, but both of whom M. Rosenthal considers, justly in many ways, "The Precursors of Realism," Ingres and Géricault. Book Fourth is devoted to an analysis of the essential nature of Romanticism in painting, and to a study of the principal figures in the Romantic revolution. Its eight chapters are entitled: Romanticism; Romantic Subjects; Romantic Landscape; Bonington; Delacroix; Decamps and the Lesser Romanticists; The Pseudo-Romanticists; and the Waverers. Book Fifth consists of a "chapitre unique" dealing with "The Resistance," and notes the fact that the School of David was never really overthrown, but persists to this day, in greatly modified form, as the official representative of French art; while Book Sixth deals with such side issues as the influence, or lack of influence, on French Romantic painting of the other arts of design, of literature, and of the painting of the other countries of Europe. Finally, there are a "Conclusion"; two appendices, giving lists of the principal works of the various Salons of the Restoration, and of the principal works of that period now to be found in Paris; and an alphabetical index of artists mentioned in the text.

It is, of course, impossible to consider in the space of a book review a tithe of the subjects touched upon in so extensive a work. It would be interesting to dwell upon the treatment given to Ingres, but we shall confine ourselves almost entirely to Book IV., and to one or two points in that book. M. Rosenthal is especially concerned to combat the idea that the Romantic revolution was largely a literary rather than a purely artistic movement, and that it consisted as much in a change of subjects and of the manner of considering subjects as in a change of technical methods and the manner of considering painting. He quotes Fromentin's remarks about the dominance of the subject in French Romantic art, about the pictures "which all signify something, which all represent things or feelings, express passions or tell stories, . . . pictures in which the dramatic, pathetic, romantic, historical, or sentimental element contributes almost as much as the talent of the painters to the success of their works." But he quotes to disagree. He minimizes the direct influence of the Romantic writers on the Romantic painters, and of the painters on the writers, maintains that in reality they saw little of each other, and understood less, and that the two movements were parallel, not identical. For him, the subjects of the Romantic school were pretexts only, adopted because they gave a chance for splendid color and rich effects, and his definition of Romanticism in painting is that it was an attempt "to free painting from all preoccupations foreign to painting itself"—to revive the art of painting as such—to create art for art's sake.

This definition seems to us faulty in that it is at once too wide and too narrow. In order to justify it, he drops out of the count altogether the host of illustrators who, when they were not the painters themselves, lived with them and beside them; he classes Vernet and Delaroche and Scheffer and many more as pseudo-Romanticists, and, having thus reduced the Romantic school to Bonington, Delacroix, and Decamps, with two or three minor men, who were really bent on the revival of painting, he makes his school fit his definition. But, if the definition is narrow enough to exclude a number of painters who have always been classed with the school, it is wide enough to include all the greatest painters who have ever lived, many of whom not only belonged to other schools, but have never been thought to have had the Romantic temperament. If Romanticism in painting is simply painting for its own sake, then Titian was a Romantic painter, and Rubens, and even Chardin and Terburgh. The Romantic revolution of the Restoration was a complex movement, in which many currents mingled. A part of it was the mediævalism of contemporary literature, a part was a revived love of color and an attempt to recover the art of painting, a part was individualism, the revolt against authority, the desire of personal expression. The first was akin to all good painting; the third is the special mark of the Romantic temper in all times and countries.

M. Rosenthal's treatment of Delacroix is highly interesting, and gives some notion of the isolated and personal nature of his genius and of the kind of partial failure that has left him a great name, but a painter of unliked or almost disliked pictures. The conclusion, also, is admirable, which shows how, as the modern artist has become free,

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he has also become separated from his public, so that in the nineteenth century was seen, for the first time in the world, a people that scorned its greatest artists, and great artists busy in producing what the people did not want and glorying in their own unpopularity. We have said enough to show that the book is one of real importance. We should like to think that there might be sufficient demand to insure its translation.

The latest volume in the "Great Masters" series is much like many of its companions. It is marked by the same over-enthusiasm of the specialist, by the same careful statement of fact and painstaking in the matter of attribution, that mark most volumes of the series. In the latter matter the treatment of one case is puzzling. Of the Poldo-Pezzoli "Portrait of a Lady" (attributed, tentatively, to Verrocchio by Berenson), the text says: "There is no extant evidence which connects its authorship with Piero; but if it is not from his hand, it must be the work of some gifted painter of the same school whose name has perished." This seems to incline towards Piero's authorship, but in the "Catalogue of Works" this picture bears the asterisk which marks those works "which the author cannot accept." When we find that this same picture has been made the frontispiece of the volume (an exquisite one it makes), and reproduced in photogravure as against the half-tone of the other plates, we are somewhat bewildered. One small statement we must criticise. Of the portrait of Federigo, Duke of Urbino, it is said: "The attitude of exact profile was doubtless chosen to conceal the loss of the right eye," etc. As five other portraits attributed to Piero are shown in this volume, all in exact profile, as were most portraits of that date, the reason seems superfluous.

Mrs. Ady's 'Painters of Florence' is a workmanlike little book which may be safely recommended to students and beginners who wish for a concise account of the Florentine painters from Giotto to Buonarroti, with what is definitely known of their lives and some appreciation of their especial achievement and their position in the history of Art. It is embellished with a photogravure frontispiece after Lionardo, and sixteen well-executed half-tones which, oddly enough, include nothing of Michelangelo's.

Evelyn March Phillips has compiled a guide-book to the Sistine Chapel which tourists should put in their trunks and, when they go to the Vatican, in their pockets. The subject of each of the frescoes is described, portraits are identified where possible, the present state of expert opinion as to attribution is made clear, there is a little harmless criticism, and the whole is accompanied by twenty-four illustrations of frescoes or parts of frescoes. The only thing we should be inclined to cavil at is the identification of one of the figures in Perugino's "Charge to Peter" with Judas. It is true that there seem to be twelve apostles here instead of the eleven in Raphael's cartoon, in which Mr. Stearns fancied he recognized a figure of Judas, but we cannot believe that any painter would have placed Judas among the other disciples after the Passion and the Resurrection, and certainly not that he would have allowed him still to wear the aureole as do both these figures. In Giotto's frescoes at Padua, Judas wears the halo up to the moment of the Betrayal, but in that scene it is absent.

THE BOER-BRITISH WAR.

The Second Boer War, 1899-1900. By John P. Wisser, Captain Seventh United States Artillery. Kansas City, Mo.: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co. 1901.

The Sick and Wounded in South Africa. By W. Burdett-Coutts, M.P. Cassell & Co. 1900.

Campaign Pictures from the Front. By A. G. Hales, Special Correspondent of the *Daily News*. Cassell & Co. 1900.

An American with Lord Roberts. By Julian Ralph. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

In the aftermath of recent books upon the war in South Africa, the most important of those coming under our notice is the military study by Capt. Wisser of the United States Artillery, in a small volume accompanied by a portfolio of twenty-three maps, and illustrated by pictures of bridges, "kopjes," traction engines for highways, and other local features of the campaigning. These illustrations, as well as the information which affords a trustworthy basis of his criticisms, Capt. Wisser has drawn mainly from French and German military periodicals. The method of treatment is first to give a simple and dispassionate account of a campaign, and to follow it immediately by comments upon its lessons to the professional soldier. But the writer's deductions will be of interest to other than active military men. He points out the blunders of the British commanders in the first periods of the fighting, in their employment of obsolete methods of attack, in failing to develop a proper system of reconnoissance, in preparing for assault of entrenched positions only by a desultory artillery fire instead of a vigorous bombardment, and in sending masses of troops with volley fire against an invisible, well-covered enemy instead of deploying a thin skirmish line. The Boers, however, were very weak whenever it came to the offensive, and so lost many an advantage gained in their skilful repulses of assaults. Capt. Wisser thinks the most impressive conclusion to be drawn from these campaigns is that, notwithstanding the immense improvements in arms of long range and precision, the old principle of strategy has not been weakened, namely, that the army which assumes the active offensive is most likely to win.

The letters written to the London *Times* from South Africa by Mr. Burdett-Coutts, in the spring of 1900, setting forth the hideous condition of the hospitals for the sick men of the British army, quite naturally stirred up much passionate discussion in Parliament and out. A partial reprint of some of these official disputations, with Mr. Burdett-Coutts's arguments of vindication, and a few of the letters, is now given in a pamphlet of some 350 pages. Abstracts of Parliamentary debates and of hearings by Commissions are seldom attractive in literary form, and the English mode of reporting such matters seems to add to their intrinsic dulness. But, from the cloud of words and Parliamentary flourishes, emerges pretty clearly the essential truth that, until public sentiment was aroused by these and other letters, the medical department of the war was utterly obtuse to the crying needs of an army suddenly improvised in a new country of unwholesome conditions. The idea that war is meant for the killing of men seems to have justified the home authorities, in their own minds, in leaving to Providence crowds of men alarmingly sick with typhoid and other enteric diseases; for the doctors were few, overworked, and ill-equipped with appliances for arresting the disease, and the dominant idea of nursing was to exclude women by all means, and to rely upon ignorant and untrained enlisted men, most of them convalescents—that is, barely recovered from sickness and therefore enfeebled in energy. The official retorts to the testimony of neglect and inhumanity were mainly those to which we of the United States were accustomed under like complaints in our Spanish war: first, a general denial; then, when the evidence was irresistible, an outcry against the disloyalty to party of the chief accuser, and the unpatriotic temper of criticism in time of war. But eventually, after much needless misery and death, the evils were largely remedied. A permanent value of such contributions to history is in their emphasizing the essentially brutalizing effect of warfare upon ordinarily reasonable and humane persons.

The representatives of the colonial contingents of the British army, in their ardent praise of the valor of their compatriots, resemble the reporters from the front of the exploits of the volunteers of a certain great American republic; and a fellow-feeling may therefore draw some of us to the narrative of an Australian member of the staff of the *Daily News*, who depicts with enthusiasm the deeds of his countrymen, presenting his tales after the fashion of a camp-fire story-teller, with a liberal infusion of slang, and with warm recognition of the virtues, which he finds to be many, of his Boer adversaries, into whose hands as a prisoner he once fell. Incidentally the writer throws light upon the causes of typhoid fever, to whose charge must be laid most of the soldier deaths, by hotly declaiming against the utter lack of sanitary sense in the management of many of the camps. But the Boers seem to have been rather more ignorant or reckless of camp decency.

Julian Ralph does not share the admiration for the Boers of his brother newspaper correspondent. On the contrary, he declares them to be treacherous and lying, and for the most part ill-kept in persons and homes, and finds a close resemblance in their lowness in the scale of civilization to the East Tennessee mountaineers. He even goes so far in their dispraise as to question their skill as marksmen, since he finds that their volleys were no more disastrous than those of the average lines of fire. This denial, however, hardly agrees with the writer's other testimony as to the peril of approaching the Boer entrenchments. Notwithstanding his paradoxes, Mr. Ralph deserves the gratitude of his readers in at least one respect, that he opens this collection of gleanings from his writings to magazines and newspapers with some clear definitions of the terms of local topography, such as kopje, veldt, spruit, nullah, and kraal, which most of the writers from South Africa have been content to roll as sweet morsels under their tongues, as additions to their impressive vocabulary, without condescending to translate them into England equivalents which would greatly enlighten their narratives.

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The Opera, Past and Present. By W. F. Apthorp. Scribners.

In this, the third volume in Scribner's "Music Lover's Library," Mr. Apthorp has accomplished the remarkable feat of condensing the history of the opera into a book of 238 pages, every one of which is interesting. He has shown exceptional taste and judgment in eliminating unessential facts, while the important ones are presented in excellent perspective with the aid of a vivid literary style which sometimes verges on colloquialism. Nor is this all. He has managed to give his monograph a sort of plot interest. Operas are proverbially short-lived, and to study their individual history is a good deal like walking in a cemetery and reading gravestones. The first operas were written three hundred years ago, and many hundreds were written every hundred years (Riemann's 'Opern-Handbuch' is a volume of 750 pages); but it is not till we come to Gluck's "Orfeo," dated 1762, that we find an opera which has survived to this day. The first two chapters (53 pages) of Mr. Apthorp's book are, therefore, concerned with the dead operas of a century and a half. His treatment of the subject is, however, very much alive.

The plot interest referred to lies in his tracing the evolution of the opera, and showing that, although there has been an astounding progress, the extremes nevertheless meet. Poor Wagner was barbarously abused for his "absurd theories" and his "iconoclasm," while, as a matter of fact, his attitude was practically identical with that of the originators of Italian opera. "The opera began (in theory, at least) as a perfect exemplification of the art principles of the Wagnerian Music-Drama; all that was lacking was a further musical development." Long before there was any opera, there were what Mr. Apthorp felicitously calls "premonitory symptoms," such as the pastoral play attributed to Adam de la Halle, the early madrigal plays, and the French pantomimic ballets. Then came the Florentine reform—a foolish and futile attempt to revive classic Greek drama, which resulted, instead, in the birth of modern opera.

The trouble with this early opera was that it was little more than a theoretical skeleton; a union of poetry, scenery, action, and music, but without any musical charm, except some vocal embroideries. This naturally led to a reaction, and, from being an essentially dramatic and scenic form of art, the opera became a purely musical one. Thus there have been two opposing principles in the opera ever since its beginning, and Mr. Apthorp's book tells the story of this long warfare between them. Originally, in Peri, Monteverdi, Cavalli (as in Wagner), the opera is a drama with auxiliary music; the anti-dramatic school of Carissimi and Cesti made it a drama for the sake of music; and such it remained, in spite of Gluck, Weber, and some minor reformers, as late as Rossini and Donizetti, till the giant club of Richard Wagner destroyed it so effectively that it had to be given up by the Italians themselves, headed by Verdi, whose "Falstaff" is Wagnerian, in so far as it abandons all the old operatic set forms and makes the music adapt itself every moment, both in form and in spirit, to the text and the action. The young Italians followed him in this, and they also followed him in studying other foreign models. Mr. Apthorp suggests ingeniously and plausibly that the musical decadence of Italy was due to the stopping, for a long time, of all musical ideas at the frontier. Italy always exported, never imported, till she was exhausted. Verdi created a new epoch by assimilating the progress made in Germany and France, while his individuality and originality were great enough to save him from the charge of being an imitator.

The composers to whom our author devotes separate chapters are Gluck, Mozart, and Wagner. What Gluck did was "new enough to scare the critics, who, as academic policemen, guarded nothing more carefully than the inviolable sacredness of traditional forms." He was accused, like every "new light" in the whole history of opera, of lacking all power of song, and of setting things to music that were not appropriate to song. The author holds truly that Gluck's real strength as a reformer lay in his work, not in his doctrine. His theory is chiefly negative, pointing out what should be avoided in opera writing. Vocal ornamentation he does not oppose on principle, but only where it seems out of place, and he retains the old set forms. For Mozart, Mr. Apthorp has a great admiration, though he admits that he totally ignored the Gluck movement, founded no school, left no imitators, and "was decidedly an ordinary man intellectually. . . . Were he alive to-day, he would read nothing but a newspaper." Regarding "Figaro," the author seems to agree with Hans von Bülow that the comedy is better without Mozart's music. In "Don Giovanni," however, Mozart "suddenly discards his familiar methods, and instinctively takes—to be sure in his own way and style—to the Wagner method."

The pages devoted to Wagner show the same judicial temperament as the other chapters. The author thinks that the influence of other composers shows itself to some extent in Wagner, as late as "Rheingold" and "Die Walküre." Like other great men, Wagner "had a way of taking his own where he found it; but, with 'Siegfried,' he began to find it only in himself." The evolution of the leading motive is traced to a point where, as in the love duo in "Siegfried," the music is woven out of five distinct motives in the closing stretto in C. Though Wagner was ever hungering for sympathy, Mr. Apthorp believes that the opposition he met with during the better part of his life was a stimulant which his militant genius needed, and which benefited his work.

There are many other suggestive comments in this book that might be dwelt on—such as the explanation why Rossini did not write any operas during the last thirty-nine years of his life; the remarks on "sea-serpent operas" that led to the reaction in favor of the third-rate Mascagni; the degeneracy and the saving features of Bayreuth to-day; the French opera created by foreigners, etc. Bizet alone hardly gets as much attention as he deserves. His operatic work may be considered the most inspired after Wagner's, but our author dismisses him with a curt reference to "the matchless 'Carmen.'" But this is a slight matter. The book, as a whole, cannot be too highly commended to all lovers of the opera. The croakers who are always talking about the decline in the art of singing will find the chapter on "The Art of the Opera Singer" an eye-opener.

The Historical Novel, and Other Essays. By Brander Matthews. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Matthews's essay on the study of fiction opens with the remark that "Many of us remember a time when we would have scouted as an arrant absurdity any suggestion that literature should be studied." The case is overstated, and perhaps may mean no more than that the study of the genealogy and development of some literary forms is a modern invention. Or perhaps he wishes to say that people used to read a good deal without a grim intention of self-improvement, or that self-improvement, if regarded at all, was regarded as a certain result of constant communion with the fine spirit of literature, and not as synonymous with the acquisition of facts about literature. He expresses a regret (not bitter) that his own abundant, haphazard reading lacked a competent guide who might have helped him, earlier, to form æsthetic theories of his own. But, if he began late, he has not been idle since the waking moment, and has formed theories and formulated them with a positiveness which is interesting, but which still leaves some people unconvinced. Several of the papers in this volume were prepared for delivery before college societies, and the author shows conscientious zeal in supplying this generation with the sort of aid in which his own was deficient. He defines and discusses at length several kinds of fiction, indicates their historical and racial sources, traces the passage of the art from tales of the impossible, struggling with deformity, surviving degradation, and arriving at last at that perfection of form and moral efficiency which he calls "inevitable" fiction, and which appears chiefly to have been written by some Russians, Mr. Howells, and Mark Twain. Though firmly maintaining the superiority of the Inevitables, he is less harsh than in times past in judgment of some novelists who, with all their imperfections, have managed to hold the affection of several generations.

Scott is recognized as having a first-rate talent for historical fiction (a poor sort), and though still under suspicion of immorality, he is acquitted of any desire to corrupt. Then his strong sense for reality, shown in portraits of common people, is a solid offset to his mediæval tomfoolery, and his 'Bride of Lammermoor' is so good that we infer that an "Inevitable" would not blush to own it. This novel seems to us, remembering Mr. Matthews's favorite dictum — "Untrue, therefore immoral" — very odd selection for commendation. Untruth to character is presumably as bad as untruth about tournaments and other feudal pastimes; and of all Scott's characters none are less individualized or more rigidly conventional than Lucy Ashton and the Laird of Ravenswood. The melodramatic Laird is hardly a person, he is a pose—so perfectly a pose that his part is always best when it is sung, and the whole action seems most real when it is removed to the absolutely unreal atmosphere of grand opera. Bagehot's suggestion (quoted with assent by Mr. Matthews), that the popularity of 'Ivanhoe' is due to the fact that it "describes the Middle Ages as we should wish them to be," is one of the strained conceptions that bring critics into contempt with people of sense. Fancy legions of boys and girls rushing to read 'Ivanhoe' because it

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agrees with their preconceived idea of what the Middle Ages should be! On the whole question of the comparative lifelessness and tediousness of average historical fiction, the author expresses himself with a moderation which makes his opinions agreeable even to persons who take a light view of novels and novelists, and who cannot share his passionate attachment to the theory of the immorality of creating pleasant illusions.

It is gratifying to observe that the ban has been partially lifted from Dickens, once described by Mr. Matthews as a "man of limited culture and of narrow intelligence." Dickens himself is not to blame. The change has been brought about by Mr. Gissing, who wrote a study of Dickens which moved Mr. Matthews to relax the severity of his frowning upon the novelist whose stories, as they appeared in print, had been literally fought for in the book-shops, clubs, and reading-rooms of the Empire, though fought for, of course, by people of common sympathies and curiosities, ignorant of the seriousness of the art of fiction. The same sort of people have perpetuated the fame of the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' and doubtless will continue to do so, unintimidated by the excited vituperation of Mark Twain, which is quoted by Mr. Matthews, and, though not quite concurred in, described as a "sentence of annihilation." The 'Vicar' is rather an unfortunate selection as a peg on which to hang disapproval of "lip reverence" and "superstitious veneration" accorded to the classics. Richardson, Fielding, Smollett, may fairly be called the property of the literary guild and a class that loves letters, but the 'Vicar' is the house-friend of every English family that reads anything more than newspapers or the "month's novels." Mr. Matthews once appealed to the world to adopt the phrase "British literature" for modern books written in the British Isles. The suggestion, we think, was not adopted by the natives of those islands, but it is probable that, if Mark Twain continues with approval of his compatriots to pass such sentences of annihilation, the born Britisher may accept any phrase which shall distinguish American from English criticism.

To persons not specially interested in literary history and technique, the most enjoyable essays are an excellent study of Alphonse Daudet, the friendly tribute to the memory of Mr. Bunner, and "The Relation of the Drama to Literature." Mr. Matthews's criticism of the drama always seems to us of a higher order than that of non-dramatic literature, more philosophical and less at the mercy of prejudice and fads.

Mount Omi and Beyond. By A. J. Little. London: William Heinemann.

In the coming reconstruction of China, we may expect that the railways, starting from the coast, will carry a great many tourists through the wonderful inland province of Sze-Chuan to the glorious mountain of Omi. This rises 11,000 feet in height, not far from the borders of Tibet, and about it several books have been already written by foreigners. The author of 'Through the Yangtsze Gorges' in his new work gives us, besides his own portrait, nearly a score of very effective photographs of scenery, and a lively narrative of travel, in 1892 and 1897. He left the lowlands of smells, of uncounted graves, and of humanity congested in the river valleys, to seek the health-giving, wind-swept plateau, and to see how the world looked on the borders of Tibet.

Mr. Little brings out effectively and with wonderful clearness the contrast between the broad plain of eastern and middle China and the broken country west of I-Chang. In the one part is a succession of plains and level rice-fields, in the other, range upon range of precipitous mountains. Among these, water-courses large and small make their way, and waterfalls abound; yes, even cataracts of mud and stone. One of these the author describes on page 165. As every natural phenomenon is supposed to be in charge of a local deity, this curious place, where it rains stones and mud, is called Buddha's Ear Precipice, and here a small temple is niched into the rock. Indeed, at nearly every rapid in the many rivers of Sze-Chuan, shrines are cut out of the rock to which the passing boatmen seldom fail to pay their devotion.

In this part of China the æsthetic feeling has the upper hand. The author felt forcibly the harmony of Chinese towns and hamlets with surrounding nature far from the coast. Here abides the spirit of the "middle ages," enabling the author to realize how our own ancestors managed to live contentedly in such, to us, utter discomfort. Yet against these drawbacks are the brilliant costumes, which in western China are even more striking than the more monotonous body coverings further east. The author cannot go as far as Sir Edwin Arnold, but he gives high praise to the Buddhists for having rendered sacred all the most picturesque sites. Thus, they have preserved the great groves of shade trees around their temples from the axes of the utilitarian natives. These western Chinese seem determined to deforest their mountains, and thus do their best to aid the march of the central Asian desert. Already floods and drought are alternately depopulating the provinces which were once the home of the Chinese race and for many centuries the granary of the empire. Railways, engineering, varied manufactures, the development of mineral riches, the better science and religion that will destroy superstition which congests population around ancestral graves, will make a new China capable of sustaining many times the present population. Yet while these may do excellently, the science of forestry, in the west at least of China, will not be least in replenishing and subduing the earth so as to make it more fertile and more habitable.

The author's style is bright and crisp. In telling us about the diet and customs of this new and untravelled part of China he is very interesting. He writes entertainingly of the buttered brick-tea eaten as a vegetable, of the wonderful, costly, and numerous memorial arches; of the salt wells and the evaporation of brine by the use of natural gas; of the suspension bridges, of the abundant mineral wealth and the wretched and slow means of developing it. The auriferous quartz, if properly mined, would enable China to have a gold currency, and thus she could assimilate herself to the rest of the civilized world. Unfortunately much of Sze-Chuan is given to the cultivation of the poppy, and many of the people to opium intoxication, the use of the drug in smoking having greatly increased during recent years. Since the Japanese war, the likin, or local tax business, is worse than ever, the stations for the collection being multiplied daily on every river, road, and footpath in the country, even the interchange of products between neighboring towns being taxed.

Although the Tibetans who came down out of the highlands to visit and trade in the Chinese frontier cities are, as compared with the Chinese, far better looking and much more polite, more athletic, and trained to the use of arms in childhood, they are kept in subjection by the Chinese. Curiously enough, the Chinese have not disarmed the races which they have conquered, as is the policy of the British and other European nations in Asia. To a Chinaman the use of arms is abhorrent. The author thinks that this is a case of moral or perhaps intellectual supremacy. Perhaps it might be more accurate to say that China, under the old theory, surrounded herself with a ring of practically subsidized buffer states, and this loose but not unpractical fashion maintained order and made travel practically safe.

The descent from the healthy highlands to the opium-smoking, poverty, dirt, and smells of the China of the plains came like a shock. The author, even when unable to sleep in the inns, on account of the propinquity of pigsties, comforted himself with sweet memories of the stimulating exercise and fresh mountain air of the highlands, and even composed poetry. He lives in the hope that railways will soon give residents on the steamy plains of China free access to her grand mountains. Then such stories as these of the delays and the discomforts of travel in the nineteenth century will be deemed incredible.

Essays on the Monetary History of the United States. By Charles J. Bullock. Macmillan.

This work is a rather brief résumé of certain incidents connected with the financial history of this country, and all too brief to give a clear idea of the sequence of legislation and the influence of theories or results tending to mould that legislation. Professor Sumner's volume was as compressed a history as could be written, but, short as it is, the facts fall into regular order and tell a story which is not only intelligible, but very instructive. It would have added much to the clearness of Mr. Bullock's essays had the same method been followed. We should not then have had Thomas Paine "retorting" upon William Douglas, nor Douglas in 1749 replying to an argument of Franklin made in 1729. Nor would Pelatiah Webster, who wrote only on the paper money of the Revolution, be quoted again and again in connection with earlier colonial issues. Had the effort been confined to showing the evils and dangers attending an irredeemable and legal-tender paper currency, such anachronisms might pass; but the narration of historical events demands that statements and arguments be so arranged as to lead up to actual legislation, or to explanation of the reasons of the success or failure of a measure.

This quality introduces no little confusion into Mr. Bullock's essays. The account of the Massachusetts issues in the first half of the eighteenth century is too meagre to show why the currency influenced politics, made and unmade Governors, vitiated the morals of the people, and inflicted heavy losses upon the welfare of the province. The experience of the Continental currency, rich

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in every point of view, is related in twenty pages, and, unless the reader was very familiar with the story, he would be puzzled in seeking to obtain a definite conception of what happened or was done. Exactly why the Continental Congress is generally held free from blame in beginning at once to issue credit bills has never been explained, for there was at least the alternative of letting each colony make its issues, as, in fact, each did, and of confining general action to making the issues receivable throughout the different colonies. Mr. Bullock's account of the silver agitation is very incomplete, and yet a few paragraphs more would have rounded out the chapter so that the outlines of the story could have been comprehended. The many notes show how wide a reference to authorities Mr. Bullock has made; but a more careful notice of the manner in which these authorities arrange their material would have rendered this volume more useful.

The volume closes with essays on the colonial paper issues of North Carolina and New Hampshire, containing the results of research printed more in the form of annals than of criticism or comparison. Many interesting facts can be gleaned from these essays, and even the attempt to determine exactly how much paper was outstanding in each year has met with some success. Any one who has made this attempt knows how difficult the task is, by reason of the little attention given in colonial days to carefully itemized accounts. As the foundation of a larger work, Mr. Bullock's essays have much in their favor, but the general reader will turn to Sumner, White, or Noyes in preference, even though the same ground is not covered by them.

Arte, Scienza e Fede ai giorni di Dante. Conferenze Dantesche tenute a cura del Comitato Milanese della Società Dantesca Italiana nel MDCCCC. Milan: Hoepli. 1901.

This volume of lectures, originally prepared for the Milanese Committee of the Società Dantesca Italiana, has two special claims to consideration. In the first place, most of the essays themselves are of unusual excellence, and summarize the best knowledge on their respective subjects; and, secondly, the volume as a whole may be taken as a symptom that the tide is turning in Dante studies away from philological and textual criticism, and away from the microscopic dissection of Dante himself, towards the world in which he lived. Environment can never wholly explain a supreme genius; but the more thoroughly we are acquainted with the conditions amid which he lived, the more surely shall we estimate aright how much in him was not the product of his environment at all, but sprang from his individuality.

There are eight essays in this volume besides a preface by Prof. Gaetano Negri, the general editor, who is President of the Royal Lombard Institute for Sciences and Letters, at Milan. Professor Negri, after aptly epitomizing what is to follow, gives in a few luminous pages his own views on the oft-repeated assertion that Dante was the earliest of moderns, instead of the latest and greatest of mediævals. Dante's modernness, says Professor Negri, is due to the fact that in him, "more even than the thinker and the poet, the man was actually sovereign. . . . Homer is absent to such an extent from his poem that we may doubt his existence; Shakspere hides himself behind his personages in an almost impenetrable obscurity. But the *Divine Comedy* might almost be called an autobiography, in which the poet wholly reveals himself with his ardent passions, his sorrows, his hopes, his loves, his hates." On some such basis as this should every sane study of Dante rest: to him, the man, must all earnest students constantly return, if they would not be stifled by the chaff which criticism and conjecture have poured out during the past twenty years.

Sig. Pasquale del Giudice, a colleague of Sig. Negri in the Royal Lombard Institute, begins the description of Dante's epoch by an account of Italian feudalism in the thirteenth century. He shows the evolution, particularly at Florence, of popular government, by the gradual crowding to the wall now of the imperial and now of the papal vicar; next the rise of dominant families, whose mutual animosities afforded the necessary opportunity for the middle classes and the people to win control. Sig. del Giudice offers no novel points of view, but what is quite as valuable is the remarkable clearness with which, in a few pages, he analyzes feudalism under its social, political, and economic aspects, and indicates, briefly but surely, the part each played in the general result.

Only one other lecturer, Prof. Felice Tocco, who traces the currents of philosophic thought in the thirteenth century, had a more difficult subject to treat of, and he treats this in masterful fashion. Even specialists in Dante are apt to underestimate the intricacy of the philosophic teachings of his time; Prof. Tocco describes this intricacy, but is himself clear. He hunts to their origin the mutually conflicting doctrines which became the orthodox theology of Rome, and thus lets us see how Plato, through Plotinus and St. Augustine, reached Bonaventura; how Thomas Aquinas, on the other hand, derives, in part at least, from Aristotle; how Averroës and the other Arab commentators tinged with their own skepticism the philosophy of the Greeks which they passed on to the mediæval churchmen; how the distinction drawn by Averroës between knowledge and faith traversed the position of both Platonists and Aristotelians, and subdivided them into smaller sections. So far as concerns Dante, Professor Tocco's exposition has great value, not only because it reveals the intellectual ferment of the thirteenth century, but also because it suggests valid reasons for the assignment by Dante of apparently incongruous positions to some of the chief pagan philosophers and of the doctors of the Church. Dante's final criterion was a moral one; accordingly, although this or that philosophy might err, if it were actuated solely by love of truth, he respected it. Epicurus alone he condemned to hell, and that because he believed Epicureanism to aim at sensual indulgence.

The Papacy and the Church during the thirteenth century find a sympathetic essayist in Sig. Luigi Rocca, who cannot be accused of not adducing all that was good in the efforts of Innocent III. and his successors to make the theocracy of Rome universal. Such a theocracy followed logically from premises that had been laid down without contradiction centuries before. In practice it even served a good end more than once; but it corrupted the Church as a religious institution, and it had no hope of maintaining itself when states became politically strong. The mighty pontiffs whom Sig. Rocca describes as smashing the Empire beyond hope of repair, little imagined that they were thereby helping to break up the very civilization on which the existence of the papal theocracy itself rested. Even Dante did not realize that the time had passed when Church and Empire, universal and coëqual, could flourish; but he saw the frightful perversion which the Papacy wrought in the Church, and by his terrible arraignment of it he proved again that his final criterion was moral, and thereby became the precursor of all subsequent statesmen and moralists who have held that Church and State should, for their mutual good, for ever remain separate.

As a pendant to this picture of the ecclesiastical machine grasping at universal power, M. Paul Sabatier contributes in French a delightful chapter on St. Francis and the religious movement begun by him. Admirers of M. Sabatier's earlier work will find in this epitome that rare combination of glow and poise which enables him to interpret spiritual things spiritually without for a moment losing himself in the blur of mysticism. Although his essay has only an indirect bearing on Dante, it maps out one of the great streams of influence which flowed through Dante's epoch, and it suffices, incidentally, to show Dante's attitude towards the Assisan.

Of the remaining articles, only that on "Poets and Poetry of the People," by Prof. Francesco Flamini of Padua, deserves special mention for its comprehensiveness and its easy handling of a mass of erudition. Two other literary topics are dealt with, viz., "Dante and the Study of Classic Poetry," by Prof. Michele Scherillo, whose essay lacks substance, and whose style has that adjectival inflammation which used to be chronic among Italian prose-writers fifty years ago; and "Court Life and Poetry," by Prof. Francesco Novati, who skilfully describes how, as Dante matured, the poetry of chivalry came to seem to him poor and vain in comparison with the inexhaustible treasures which he had discovered in the classics. Finally, Sig. Nino Tamassia, in a paper full of local color, sketches the daily life of the people among whom Dante moved. An appendix of notes and citations, for the benefit of scholars, accompanies each essay. From the Trivulzio collection a hitherto unpublished portrait of Dante is reproduced in colors, and through the volume are distributed half-tones of some 14th-century miniatures representing social scenes nearly contemporaneous with Dante.

We have said enough to make it clear that this volume should be prized not only by readers of the great poet, but also by all students of the wonderful thirteenth century. It is further to be commended as an example of the way in which thorough scholarship may be made popular without losing in authority. Were a similar volume to be prepared by Chaucer specialists in England and America, we might get equal erudition, but should we get equal charm of presentation? Such essays as these prove that the standard of literary and historical criticism in Italy has risen much more rapidly than most foreigners are aware. So far as concerns Dante, they furnish evidence that the best Italian scholars have realized the futility of arguing further on insoluble questions of text or biography—questions which, even if they could be solved, would still remain rela-

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tively unimportant. Possibly the commentators on Goethe and Shakspere may take the hint.

Masters of French Literature. By George McLean Harper. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

The consistency, or rather the continuity, of purpose in this volume of essays, to which their author draws attention in his preface, is so skilfully maintained throughout that other teachers of French literature than Professor Harper might with good reason adopt his plan and procedure as a basis for a series of comprehensive didactic lectures. After an introductory chapter, which seeks to place the literature of France in its fitting relations to the other leading literatures of Europe, the writer travels by rapid stages, through the "Grand Siècle" and the era of revolution indirectly heralded in Saint-Simon, down to the epoch of Romanticism as shown in the work of Hugo, Sainte-Beuve, and Balzac; and thus, in broad topographical outline, the view is accurate and complete. Such deficiencies as we may find here are therefore owing to sketchiness of method, not to insufficiency in knowledge or treatment. It is, however, not altogether fair to Voltaire to quote again (p. 77) his famous "drunken savage" phrase describing Shakspere, without the corrective tag which the complete passage from the introduction to "Sémiramis" so easily supplies. Neither is it an adequate explanation of classicism to judge it as "originating largely in Racine," and being "at any rate purely French in origin" (p. 193). As regards the first point, the dramatic principles applied by Racine to his own plays had been recognized and adopted, both in France and elsewhere, by dramatists of no mean order long before the middle of the seventeenth century; Racine, with supreme mastery of his restricted art, naturally became the model for a succeeding generation. But the real dictator was the indomitable Boileau. Yet, with all these attempts at explanation, it must be remembered that vast literary movements, concurrent (or nearly so) in more than one country, depend also on prepared tendencies in the collective human mind, and thus present a psychological problem explicable through no known cause, reducible to no known law. The seeds of classicism did not fall in stony places.

Dealing with the Revolutionary period, the author might have dwelt more emphatically on the influence which Montesquieu's writings exercised upon political speculation outside of France, notably upon the ideas of Burke. Many a telling passage in the latter's polemics is conceived in the spirit of Montesquieu's warning, "Combien il faut être attentif à ne point changer l'esprit général d'une nation" ('Esp. des Lois,' xix. 5); and both these masters of thought insist on the inseparable continuity of movements, political and social, thus refusing, as Burke says, "to reduce men to loose counters, merely for the sake of simple telling, and not to figures whose power is to arise from their place in the table." We must further add that Montesquieu and Burke would probably have agreed in judging "Le Mariage de Figaro" to be not so much "political in fundamental conception" (p. 108) as passionately directed towards the social claims of equal rights and opportunities for all the sons of men; that being the unmistakable purport of the splendid, though intrusive, monologue in the garden scene.

Professor Harper's treatment of Sainte-Beuve, though in the main sympathetic and generous, displays the traditional "Anglo-Saxon" disrelish of criticism that deliberately evades moral issues. What appeals to other readers of Sainte-Beuve is precisely the combination of unrivalled delicacy of literary *flair* with exclusively artistic prepossession which renders his work so free from doctrinairism. When we read (p. 233) that " it is to Sainte-Beuve's honor if he is named at all in such company" as Lessing, Goethe, Shelley, and Matthew Arnold, we feel constrained to reply that such honor is liberally reflected; one who, during the whole of his literary life, helped " to establish the reputation of the few supreme writers" may stand on his own merits in any company of *men of letters*. And the writer of 'Qu'est-ce qu'un classique?' is certainly entitled to the right.

Professor Harper's last essay, which discusses Balzac, raises so many points relative to æsthetic "ultimates" that a reviewer is hampered in dealing with this theme. The initial sentence, which declares that "the acts of a human being are memorable in so far as they benefit mankind," constitutes a postulate that is not only disputed, but disputable. Judged by this standard, much of Balzac's work may be promptly brushed aside as unworthy of consideration. The author of the "Comédie Humaine" certainly deemed himself a *voyant*, intrusted with a mission that was little short of sacred; but it may safely be doubted whether the falsification of conceptions bearing on life and the art of the novelist, from which French fiction suffers to this day, is not almost directly traceable to his overmastering power. But if we accept his postulates, the truth of Balzac's treatment of human character is so faithfully consistent that one wonders why any attempt should be made to discriminate between the good and the bad in the stupendous series. The critic who excludes 'Le Lys dans la Vallée' as "the most falsely sentimental book in the world," or 'Splendeurs et Misères des Courtisanes' as "a phantasmagoria of impossible infamies," may find it difficult to reconcile the absurdities in plot and character of 'La Femme de Trente Ans' with the idea of a "splendid novel" (pp. 305, 315). It is singular, also, that this essay makes no mention of 'Le Cousin Pons.' But the general grasp of the subject, as well as the firmness in execution, shown in this more than usually coherent volume of studies once again exemplifies the quality of critical work to be expected from our leading centres of learning.

Cameos. By Cyril Davenport, F.S.A., of the British Museum. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. viii, 66.

This book about the once fashionable jewel and the always beloved work of art, the cameo, is one of the *Portfolio* Series of Monographs. It is illustrated by colored plates based upon photography, by monochromatic half-tone prints, and by other prints from wood blocks or the like; in all, about thirty full-page plates and a few text illustrations. In this way, perhaps, sixty famous cameos are fairly well represented.

The text is better than the illustrations, for it reaches a very high standard of mingled historical and critical explanation, while still remaining a popular treatise. The reader is told in chapter i. about the materials used and the processes employed; in chapter ii. he reads of the cameos of very early times, and of those imitations of cameos in glass paste which are themselves a very interesting subject of study; chapter iii. deals with Greco-Roman and Mediæval cameos, though the last-named subdivision of the subject is, for excellent reasons, not a large one; and in chapter iv. Renaissance and later cameos are treated in an essay which, though not the longest of the four into which the book is divided, will perhaps be found the most entirely satisfactory. For one thing the American reviewer welcomes this English book—for the recognition of the fact that there is an epoch in fine art later than "the Renaissance"; for it is too much the habit of the English writers on similar subjects to treat everything since the revival of art in 1420 as belonging to this one category, the Renaissance.

There is but a single fault to find with this very useful handbook. We mean the too great comparative emphasis laid upon the accounts given by ancient writers of cameos which are lost to the world. To any one who has noted the way in which Greco-Roman authors have dealt habitually with matters of fine art, it is altogether clear that the fullest descriptions of those writers should be accepted only as giving hints and suggestions. There is no exception to this. No writer of the classical epoch talks about the work of art, even the great wall-painting or the sculptured group of national importance, as if it were anything more than a curio. But the very object of modern research and discussion of a work of art is to point out to the careless world how little of the curio and how much of the serious work of art there is in the more important relics of the past. This objection, as soon as made, must be counterbalanced and set off by the praise to be given for the great good sense shown in classing the works of art under consideration, not by their material, but by their workmanship and their epoch. Thus, it is altogether fortunate that the glass-carved pieces, the Portland Vase, the Naples *Vase des Vendanges*, the Auldjo Vase, and the richly mounted chalcedony vase recently given to the British Museum are all treated together, although three of the pieces named are glass, and the fourth is a precious natural stone. The book is to be taken as a popular exposition of the subject, and in that capacity is as good a one as could reasonably be wished for.

The Germans in Colonial Times. By Lucy Forney Bittenger, author of 'Memorials of the Rev. J. B. Bittenger' and of 'The Forney Family of Hanover, Pa.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1901. Pp. 314.

The author has attempted in these pages to bring within the compass of a single rapid narrative a résumé of all that local annalists, in different parts of the country from Maine to Carolina, have brought to light concerning the first German settlements in the different colonies. The book has more merit and fewer defects than volumes similar in design often possess. While

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it is not without its errors of interpretation and statement—among which may be cited the claim made on page 247, that David Rittenhouse, who was of Dutch stock, was a German, and the assertion made on page 256, that Dr. John Connolly, who was exchanged in 1780, was kept a prisoner until the close of the Revolutionary war—on the other hand many facts are given which, while not of special significance so long as they remain isolated, go to justify, when collated, the author's view that a mistaken emphasis is put upon the purely English element of the American people.

Among the not uninteresting facts given are that United States Senators Frye and Fessenden were offshoots from the German settlement of Fryeburg, in the eastern foothills of the White Mountains; that John G. Saxe, the New York poet, whom Mr. Stedman strangely excluded from his recent anthology, was an offshoot from a German settlement in Massachusetts, the poet's grandfather being one Daniel Sachs; and that the Waldo family, from which Ralph Waldo Emerson took his middle name, was of German origin, Von Waldow being converted into Waldo. The founder of the German settlement of Waldoboro in Maine, by the way, seems to have been guilty of deceiving his colonists; and we hope the author is not entirely exact when she says that he became a typical American, for Gen. Waldo failed to provide for his settlers the shelter and church which he had promised them, and he abandoned them to a condition of life in which they were without clothing, chimneys to their houses, mills to make flour, or ovens to bake bread—the colonists whom Waldo had deluded into coming to America living through their first winter upon rye bruised between stones and made into broth. These Germans participated in the siege of Louisburg.

The records made by the colonial Germans of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia are fully exploited. In all these colonies the Germans at an early day had important settlements, towns, schools, churches, and industries, and from these colonies sent contributions of soldiery to our early wars, statesmen to our early councils, and men of high character and learning to many walks of life.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

"Allen." Another Woman's Territory. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Bigelow, Poultney. The Children of the Nations. McClure, Phillips & Co. $2.
Comstock, G. C. A Text Book of Astronomy. D. Appleton & Co. $1.30.
Dreyfus, Alfred. Five Years of My Life, 1894-1899. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Eaglesfield, Carina C. Books Triumphant: Essays on Literature. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Gibb's Route and Reference Book of the United States and Canada. Gibb Bros. & Moran. $5.
Hansen, George. What Is a Kindergarten? San Francisco: D. P. Elder & Morgan Shepard.
Kingsley, Florence M. The Transfiguration of Miss Philura. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 60 cents.
Knopf, S. A. Tuberculosis as a Disease of the Masses, and How to Combat It. M. Firestack. 25 cents.
Le Rossignol, J. E. Monopolies Past and Present. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Litchfield, Mary E. Irving's Sketch Book. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
Lyman, Eliza B. Hermaphro-Deity: The Mystery of Divine Genius. Saginaw (Mich.): Saginaw Printing & Publishing Co.
MacCracken, H. M. The Hall of Fame. (Official Book.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Macrosty, H. W. Trusts and the State: A Sketch of Competition. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
McElroy, Lucy C. Juletty: A Story of Old Kentucky. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
McLaughlin, N. M. The Last Man. Washington: The Neale Co.
Meakin, Budgett. The Land of the Moors. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Moody, W. V. Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Murray, J. A. H. The Oxford English Dictionary. April 1, 1901. L—Lap (commencing Vol. VI.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 60 cents.
Naurouze, Jacques. Fils de Bourgeois. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Ohnet, Georges. In Deep Abyss. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.20.
Outhwaite, R. L., and Chomley, C. H. The Wisdom of Esau. Cassell & Co. $1.25.
Palmer, J. W. For Charlie's Sake; and Other Lyrics and Ballads. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. The Successors of Mary the First. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Phillipps, Evelyn March. Pintoricchio. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Phillipps, Evelyn M. The Frescoes in the Sixtine Chapel. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Phillpots, Eden. The Good Red Earth. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Pocket Map and Shippers' Guide of New York. Rand, McNally & Co. 25c.
Prelini, Charles, and Hill, C. S. Tunnelling. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.
Primer, Sylvester. Gusmán el Bueno, by Don Antonio Gil y Zárate. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Proctor, Francis, and Frere, W. H. A New History of the Book of Common Prayer. Macmillan. $3.
Ravenel, Mrs. St. Julien. Life and Times of William Lowndes of South Carolina. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Riverside Biographical Series: (1) Thayer, J. B. John Marshall; (2) Allen, Walter. Ulysses S. Grant; (3) Lighton, W. R. Lewis and Clark. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
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Ruemelin, Gustav. Politics and the Moral Law. Macmillan.
Runkle, Bertha. The Helmet of Navarre. Century Co. $1.50.
Smith, G. H. Logic. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Sumichrast, F. C. de. The Works of Théophile Gautier. 6 vols. lim. ed. George D. Sproul.
"The Georgian Period." being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work, Parts VI., VII., and VIII. American Architect and Building News Co.
Wyatt, Edith. Every One his Own Way. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Yves, Colette. La Pension du Sphinx. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.

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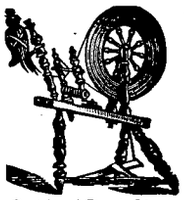

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